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ABSTRACT

This module (part of a series of 24 modules) is on understanding the process of communication in the classroom, the teacher's role in the process, and implications for instruction. The genesis of these materials is in the 10 "clusters of capabilities," outlined in the paper, "A Common Body of Practice for Teachers: The Challenge of Public Law 94-142 to Teacher Education." These clusters form the proposed core of professional knowledge needed by teachers in the future. The module is to be used by teacher educators to reexamine and enhance their current practice in preparing classroom teachers to work competently and comfortably with children who have a wide range of individual needs. The module includes objectives, scales for assessing the degree to which the identified knowledge and practices are prevalent in an existing teacher education program, and self-assessment test items. Topics discussed in this module include communication competence, the communication process, barriers to communication effectiveness, enhancing communication effectiveness, and implications for instruction. Articles on communicating effectively with handicapped students are included, as well as sample exercises and evaluation forms for a variety of communication activities. (JD)

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TEACHER COMMUNICATION IN THE CLASSROOM

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Extending the Challenge:

Working Toward a Common Body of Practice for Teachers

Concerned educators have always wrestled with issues of excellence and professional development. It is argued, in the paper "A Common Body of Practice for Teachers: The Challenge of Public Law 94-142 to Teacher Education,"* that the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 provides the necessary impetus for a concerted reexamination of teacher education. Further, it is argued that this reexamination should enhance the process of establishing a body of knowledge common to the members of the teaching profession. The paper continues, then, by outlining clusters of capabilities that may be included in the common body of knowledge. These clusters of capabilities provide the basis for the following materials.

The materials are oriented toward assessment and development. First, the various components, rating scales, self-assessments, sets of objectives, and respective rationale and knowledge bases are designed to enable teacher educators to assess current practice relative to the knowledge, skills, and commitments outlined in the aforementioned paper. The assessment is conducted not necessarily to determine the worthiness of a program or practice, but rather to reexamine current practice in order to articulate essential common elements of teacher education. In effect then, the "challenge" paper and the ensuing materials incite further discussion regarding a common body of practice for teachers.

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*Published by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Washington, DC, 1980 ($5.50).

Second and closely aligned to assessment is the developmental perspective offered by these materials. The assessment process allows the user to view current practice on a developmental continuum. Therefore, desired or more appropriate practice is readily identifiable. On another, perhaps more important dimension, the "challenge" paper and these materials focus discussion on preservice teacher education. In making decisions regarding a common body of practice it is essential that specific knowledge, skill and commitment be acquired at the preservice level. It is also essential that other additional specific knowledge, skill, and commitment be acquired as a teacher is inducted into the profession and matures with years of experience. Differentiating among these levels of professional development is paramount. These materials can be used in forums in which focused discussion will explicate better the necessary elements of preservice teacher education. This explication will then allow more productive discourse on the necessary capabilities of beginning teachers and the necessary capabilities of experienced teachers.

In brief, this work is an effort to capitalize on the creative ferment of the teaching profession in striving toward excellence and professional development. The work is to be viewed as evolutionary and formative. Contributions from our colleagues are heartily welcomed.

This paper presents one module in a series of resource materials which are designed for use by teacher educators. The genesis of these materials is in the ten "clusters of capabilities," outlined in the paper, "A Common Body of Practice for Teachers: The Challenge of Public Law 94-142 to Teacher Education," which form the proposed core of professional knowledge needed by professional teachers who will practice in the world of tomorrow. The resource materials are to be used by teacher educators to reexamine and enhance their current practice in preparing classroom teachers to work competently and comfortably with children who have a wide range of individual needs. Each module provides further elaboration of a specified "cluster of capabilities" - in this case, Teacher Communication in the Classroom: Process and Implications.

Contents

Within this module are the following components:

Set of Objectives - The objectives focus on the teacher educator rather than the student (preservice teacher). They identify what can be expected as a result of working through the materials. Objectives which apply to all practicing teachers also are identified. They are statements about skills, knowledge, and attitudes which should be part of the "common body of practice" of all teachers. Page 6

Rating Scales - Scales are included by which a teacher educator could, in a cursory way, assess the degree to which the knowledge and practices identified in this module are being transmitted in his/her teacher-training program. The rating scales also provide a catalyst for further thinking in each area. Page 9

Self-Assessment - Specific test items were developed to determine a user's working knowledge of the major concepts and principles in each subtopic. The self-assessment may be used as a pre-assessment to determine whether one would find it worthwhile to go through the module or as a self-check, after the materials have been worked through. The self-assessment items also can serve as examples of mastery test questions for students. Page 10

Rationale and Knowledge Base - This section of the module summarizes the knowledge base and empirical support for selected topics on teacher communication in the classroom, emphasizing a conceptual framework for understanding the process of communication in the classroom, the teacher's role in that process, and the implications for instruction. Page 13

- Communication Competence Page 13
- The Communication Process Page 15
  - The Role of Self in the Communication Process Page 21
- Barriers to Communication Effectiveness Page 25
- Enhancing Communication Effectiveness Page 31
  - Communication Functions Page 31
  - Social Sensitivity Page 33
  - Active Listening Page 33
  - Honest Communication Page 34
- Implications for Instruction Page 37

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Resources—The Appendices contain resources relevant to enhancing teacher communication competence in the classroom.

APPENDIX A—Publications (reproduced with permission) are included which support and expand the knowledge base relevant to enhancing teacher communication competence in the classroom. They also should provide stimulus material for student discussions.

APPENDIX B—Information contained in this section further defines "communication competence," details the functions of communication, and provides both a planning matrix for classroom communication activities, and several sample exercises for implementing the functions.

APPENDIX C—This section contains sample outlines, exercises, and evaluation forms for a variety of communication activities.

TEACHER COMMUNICATION IN THE CLASSROOM: PROCESS AND IMPLICATIONS

> . . .Trying to teach without understanding its relationship to the communication process is a bit like eating a chocolate sundae without the ice cream--a bit sticky, and not very satisfying. (Hurt, Scott & McCroskey, 1978, p. 10)

The clusters of capabilities identified in A Common Body of Practice for Teachers: The Challenge of Public Law 94-142 to Teacher Education (April, 1980) address the critical issues facing teacher education training programs in providing a framework to prepare individuals to "practice" education: to facilitate and improve the learning of all students--exceptional and non-exceptional alike. As we examine these clusters of capabilities, a conceptional thread emerges and binds all other domains of professional competence: the professional's competence as a communicator. The increased demands for accountability, for cooperative teaming approaches, for individualized programs to meet the needs of multicultural and mainstreamed students, as well as the growing recognition that communication competence is central to a student's academic, career, and personal success accent the need for greater emphasis on communication education for practitioners and teachers in training. As emphasized by communication researchers, Hurt, Scott, and McCroskey (1978), communication is the essence of teaching.

Throughout the modules developed as part of this series, the centrality of communication competence to the improvement of learning and instruction is reinforced. In preparing the prospective and/or experienced teacher, the clusters of capabilities recommend including content and instructional strategies which relate directly to the teacher's competence as a communicator. For example, the "clusters" emphasize such teacher communication competencies as:

(1) Understanding the role of oral communication as a basic skill;

(2) Improving personal development skills (e.g., goal setting, problem-solving, decision-making, and conflict resolution);

(3) Creating positive classroom environments by skillfully analyzing student populations;

(4) Developing and maintaining effective teaming, negotiation, and consultancy skills in interactions with colleagues in regular and special education, with supervisors, with parents, as well as with other professionals in education and health who are concerned with meeting the needs and rights of all students;

(5) Establishing and maintaining effective relationships which exhibit respect, trust, cooperation, and sensitivity with students and their parents;

(6) Facilitating student-student relationships by providing students with a firm foundation in human development skills, emphasizing an understanding of the communication process and an ability to implement appropriate intra- and interpersonal communication behaviors;

(7) Understanding and utilizing appropriate problem-solving, assessment, and observational techniques, including effective verbal and non-verbal listening behaviors for identification and referral of students with special needs; and

(8) Selecting and adapting appropriate content and instructional strategies to meet students' individual and group needs.

As indicated in the preceeding list, a teacher's competence as a communicator--whether in intrapersonal (e.g., personal development skills), interpersonal (e.g., teaming, consultancy, questioning skills), lecture (e.g., informative or persuasive presentational skills), or mediated contexts (e.g., videotape/television utilization skills)--carries a significant role in the teaching-learning pardigm. These competencies emphasize the need for a cognitive or knowledge base in communication; i.e., teacher-trainees must understand (a) the communication process, (b) the teacher's role in that process, and (c) the implications of the communication process for instruction. Similarly, these competencies stress the need for an affective base; i.e., a sensitivity to the verbal and nonverbal communication dimensions in the transactions which occur in the teaching-learning process; and a behavioral or performance base; i.e., an ability to implement and model communication behaviors which are appropriate for the myriad of situations confronting teachers in and outside their classrooms.

The importance of communication competence for the student's academic, social, and career success (Glassi & Glassi, 1978; Becker and Ekdom, 1980; Page and Perelman, 1980; Blitstein, 1981; Scully, 1981; Johnson and Johnson, 1982) reinforces the need for teacher-trainees to be prepared as competent communicators, able to provide relevant instruction and modelling behaviors in communication skills and strategies. Indeed, research has shown a teacher's competence and comfort as a communicator (i.e., ability to model appropriate communication behaviors) significantly affect the development of a student's communication orientation and behavior--particularly from preschool through grade five (McCroskey, 1970). A teacher who is anxious about his/her presentational skills, for example, communicates (verbally and nonverbally) that fear and anxiety to students, evoking within the students fear and anxiety for similar situations.

A teacher possessing communication competence (cognitive, affective, and behavioral competence as a communicator), therefore, should be able to utilize and adapt a variety of instructional strategies (e.g., questioning/ interviewing, small group discussion, lecture, case-study, and role-playing formats) in specialized content areas for learners with varying degrees of capabilities and needs. Studies by Staton-Spicer and Bassett (1979), Book and Eisenberg (1979), and Staton-Spicer and Marty-White (1981) have found experienced and prospective practitioners alike concerned about their communication in the classroom. They are concerned about themselves as communicators, the task of communicating in the classroom, and the impact of their communication on others. While students should receive systematic instruction in oral communication in well-defined segments of the schools' curriculum, teachers in all academic areas should be prepared to use and model a variety of communication strategies in their classrooms, thus, emphasizing the importance of communication competence for all learners (Del Polito, 1980).

Unfortunately, while courses, under the aegis of a variety of university departments (e.g., Psychology, Education, Counselling, Sociology, and Speech Communication), focus on communication competencies both inside and outside the classroom, and while numerous publications, including the modules within this series, address many of the variables affecting classroom communication, for the most part, practitioners are not prepared to facilitate, design, and or implement communication strategies appropriate for the many new roles demanded of them in today's classrooms.

This module will not provide the teacher educator with answers to all questions related to teaching communication competence. The scope of this publication is limited; it will not detail strategies for asking questions, presenting lectures, conducting interviews, leading small group or class discussions, or other communication acts; university courses are taught and books have been written on each of these subjects--several publications are included in the bibliography. Rather, the purpose of this module is to provide a conceptual framework for understanding the process of communication in the classroom, the teacher's role in that process, and the implications for instruction. With such a conceptual framework, and by providing a communication perspective for synthesizing information from the suggested reference materials, the other modules, and the teacher educator's experiences in the classroom, the teacher educator will be able to consult effectively with colleagues in communication and other disciplines to design programs which prepare prospective teachers to be effective, competent communicators in meeting the needs of all students.

The next several pages provide objectives for both the reader and for teacher-training programs, a rating scale for current programs, and a self-assessment pre-test for the reader. It is hoped this self-instructional format will assist readers in addressing the content issues related to teacher communication competence in the classroom; specifically (a) the process of communication; (b) barriers to communication effectiveness; (c) strategies for enhancing communication effectiveness; and (d) implications for instruction. Importantly, readers should review the appendixed material in conjunction with the initial text information to obtain full benefit of the module.

OBJECTIVES OF THE MODULE

Upon completion of this module, the teacher educator will be better able to:

1. Provide a rationale for including communication competency training in teacher education programs;

2. Understand and discuss the process of communication in the classroom, the teacher's role in the process, and the implications for instruction;

3. Understand and discuss the interrelationship between self-concept theory and the process of communication to the implementation of effective communication strategies in the classroom;

4. Understand and discuss barriers to effective classroom communication and their impact on student learning, particularly as related to instruction in mainstreamed classrooms;

5. Understand and discuss the impact of social sensitivity, active listening, and honest communication in the design and adaptation of effective instructional strategies; and

6. Understand and discuss the goals of communication competence, the five functions of communication, and a methodology for improving the communication behavior of teacher-trainees.

Reasonable Objectives for Teacher Education

Students in teacher training programs should have knowledge, practical skills, and commitment to professional performance in effective classroom communication. Specifically, programs should prepare practitioners and prospective teachers to:

1. Understand the process of communication, the teacher's role in the process, and the implications of effective classroom communication for both teacher and student;

2. Utilize instructional strategies which help expand and evaluate the teachers' and their students' repertoires of communication skills and knowledge across the functions of communication for improved growth and learning;

3. Communicate effectively and be able to model appropriate behaviors throughout the school day: in active listening, effectively asking and answering questions, giving directions, leading group discussions, problem-solving, resolving conflicts, lecturing, and continually adapting messages to their audiences of students, colleagues, and parents;

4. Discuss the communication process, strategies, and skills with students, colleagues, and parents;

5. Create classroom environments in which students feel free to talk, without criticism in their use of language;

6. Provide a variety of learning activities across content areas which allow students to select and practice the functions of communication in many situations (e.g., in one to one interactions, such as interviewing; in small group problem-solving interactions; in presentations to inform, persuade, entertain; and in contructing and evaluating arguments, advertisements, and other persuasive messages);

7. Train students to evaluate their own and others' behaviors and knowledge of the communication process; and

8. Understand the relationship and the implications of the students' oral communication competence to their academic success in other areas of the curriculum and to their future academic, career, and social success.

Rating Scale for Teacher Preparation Program

____ 1. Students in the teacher education program receive no systematic instruction in the communication process. Students perceive "communication" as limited to "speaking" and "listening" with little or no awareness of the dynamic process which occurs among interactants.

____ 2. Students receive instruction in "communication" somewhere in their educational program, but there is little or no opportunity for students to practice these strategies.

____ 3. Students receive instruction in classroom communication process and strategies and have opportunities to practice their communication strategies. They are not, however, assessed for, nor held accountable for, mastery of specific skills.

____ 4. Students receive extensive instruction in classroom communication process, strategies, and skills, and are monitored for their ability to perform effectively in practice sessions.

____ 5. Students receive extensive instruction in classroom communication process strategies, and skills, monitored for their ability to perform effectively in practice sessions and in student teaching. Additional training is provided as needed.

Self-Assessment

This module begins with a pretest. The purpose is to help determine how familiar the reader is with the content. The pretest items are keyed to sections of the module. If more information is desired on a certain item, it is possible to turn directly to the relevant section identified in parenthesis. Thus, whether or not the response is correct, notes made during the pretest can be used to guide further reading.

1. Define "communication." (Communication Process)

2. Define and explain the intrapersonal communication process and its critical elements. What are the implications of this definition for teacher training programs? (Communication Process)

3. Explain the following quote from J. Keltner (1970): "What we actually do when we speak to each other is talk to ourselves." (Communication Process)

4. To what extent student perceptions of teacher communication behaviors make a difference in the students' academic achievement? Explain. (Communication Process)

5. To what extent teachers' perceptions of students influence the students' academic achievement? Explain. (Communication Process)

6. Define "communication competence." To what extent does performance affect one's competence as a communicator? (Communication Process)

7. Explain the role of self-concept in the communication process. How does self-concept affect communication in the classroom? (Communication Process)

8. Define "self-concept enhancement." What is the relationship between self-concept enhancement and evaluation in the classroom? (Communication Process)

9. Identify at least five strategies for enhancing students' self-concepts in the classroom. What impact can these strategies have on the students' competencies as communicators? (Communication Process and Appendix A: Guidelines)

10. Define "noise" as it occurs in the communication process. (Barriers to Communication Effectiveness)

11. Identify at least five barriers to effective classroom communication. How will these barriers affect students in a mainstreamed classroom? (Barriers to Communication Effectiveness)

12. To what extent does language affect one's attitudes toward students with handicapping conditions? What are the implications for instruction? (Barriers to Communication Effectiveness and Appendix A article by Del Polito)

13. Define "defensive" listening. What classroom communication behaviors may precipitate defensive listening? What recommendations would you suggest to teachers to improve listening behaviors in the classroom? (Barriers to Communication Effectiveness and Enhancing Communicative Effectiveness)

14. Identify and explain the five functions of communication. (Enhancing Communicative Effectiveness and Appendix B)

15. How could the functions of communication be implemented into an existing teacher education program? (Enhancing Communicative Effectiveness and Appendix A article by Vogel and Fetzer)

16. Identify and explain three skills which are basic to the teachers' and students' abilities to understand one's self and others, obtain and

utilize feedback from others, and design and adapt appropriate communication strategies. (Enhancing Communicative Effectiveness)

17. Identify and explain a methodology for improving communication effectiveness for both teachers and students. (Implications for Instruction)

Communication Competence

As established in the opening section, a teacher's competence as a communicator is critical to the success of the teaching-learning process. One's cognitive *knowledge* of communication processes and implications, *affective* sensitivity to all verbal and nonverbal dimensions of the process, and *behavioral* ability to select and model appropriate communication behaviors are central to the instructional process. The instructional process, equated here with the communication process, is a dynamic, on-going, circular process which is constantly changing. *Communication competence* involves the dynamic transaction which occurs between people. In the classroom, the transaction occurs between teacher and students, students and students, and any other persons impacting the teaching-learning paradigm (e.g., principals, parents, siblings, aides, and related health and education professionals).

Oral communication competence is defined as the ability of an individual to select, adapt, and implement speaking and listening behaviors appropriate for the purpose, audience (one or more individuals), and the context of the interaction. *Knowledge* of communication behavior and strategies is insufficient; one also must be able to *demonstrate* that knowledge in a given situation. To utilize and demonstrate the knowledge one has about communication in the classroom, one must be "tuned in" to the verbal and nonverbal nuances of the communication transaction--the on-going and dynamic transaction--within the classroom context.

[illegible]r example, reflecting on her students' incomplete homework assignments and irate phone calls from parents, the bright, loquacious English teacher will need to reevaluate her communication behaviors in presenting the assignment.

Her evaluation might include her use of vocabulary, organizational approach, and/or supporting or clarifying data for the specific receivers of her communication (e.g., inner-city eighth graders, readying themselves for the next period's pep rally). Perhaps, her inability to perceive accurately or adapt to her students' capabilities, their nonverbal reactions in the form of blank stares and inattentive behaviors, as well as the extenuating circumstances of the environmental and experiential context of the situation (e.g., the upcoming pep rally for the evening's big football game with the team's arch rival), provoked the incomplete assignments and irate phone calls from parents.

Examples of ineffective communication strategies abound in our elementary and secondary classrooms, and indeed have increased with the new demands of mainstreamed students. While there are no easy answers to ensure accurate message interpretation by students or teachers, teacher-trainees can be prepared to facilitate more appropriate, effective communication transactions in their classrooms. To do so, they must understand the communication process, understand the receivers (e.g., students, aides, colleagues, etc.) and their experiential worlds, and understand themselves, including their personal competencies and biases. In addition, they must be prepared to select, implement, and evaluate communication strategies appropriate for the receivers, themselves, and the situation. Only with such communication competence will our teacher-trainees be able to better control the meaning attached to the messages sent and received in their classrooms and improve the teaching-learning process.

As noted previously, the purpose of this module is to provide the teacher educator with a conceptual framework for understanding the process of communication in the classroom, the teacher's role in that process, and the implications for instruction. The remaining pages of this publication, therefore, will address the content issues related to teacher communication competence in the classroom, namely:

- The Process of Communication;
- Role of Self in the Communication Process;
- Barriers to Communication Effectiveness;
- Strategies for Enhancing Communication Effectiveness; and
- Implications of Teacher Communication Competence for Instruction.

The appendixed material is provided to supplement and enhance the text and to provide sample exercises and evaluation tools for the teacher educator's use in the college classroom.

The Communication Process

In studying the communication process during the past thirty years, communication researchers and theoreticians have moved from the definition of communication as the transmission of information (message-centered) to a definition which focused on the transfer of information from one person to another (speaker-centered) to finally an understanding that communication must be defined in terms of the meaning the receiver attaches to the incoming stimuli (meaning-centered).

This meaning-centered philosophy focuses on communication as a dynamic, on-going, circular process which is constantly changing (Barnlund, 1971). This definition, emphasizes the complexity of the process, recognizing "communication" is not limited to message formulation (in speaking) and message reception (in listening), but rather involves the participants' total personalities in a transaction in which messages are decoded and encoded simultaneously.

This simultaneous and circular process is further complicated by the experiential worlds of the participants, each of whom brings to the situational context a history of perceptions--of themselves, of the other person, and of the other's perceptions of them. To understand the more complex, circular process between two or more persons (whether with a small group of colleagues, a classroom of students, or with a large audience in a public speaking or mass media situation), it is helpful to review the most basic, and perhaps the purest form of communication: communication with one's self, as illustrated in the intrapersonal communication process.

As noted in Figure 1.1, one of the most critical elements in the communication process is the individual's selectivity in exposure, attention, perception, and retention of stimuli which bombard the senses. The situational climate (time, place, context, persons involved, and their motivations) provides a wide array of stimuli from which the individual chooses to select. Stimuli may be external (visual, aural, tactile, gustatory, or olfactory) or internal (physical or psychological).

While physical attributes may limit the acuity of a person's senses (e.g., hearing loss, blindness); nonetheless, we do attend to, accept, and retain data which are congruent with our perceptions of--and particularly acceptance of--ourselves and our world. All parts of the intrapersonal communication process--decoding, evaluating, interpreting, and integrating information we select, as well as the formulation of new messages either to be retained for further review and modification or transmitted to others--are influenced by one's perception of self or self-concept.

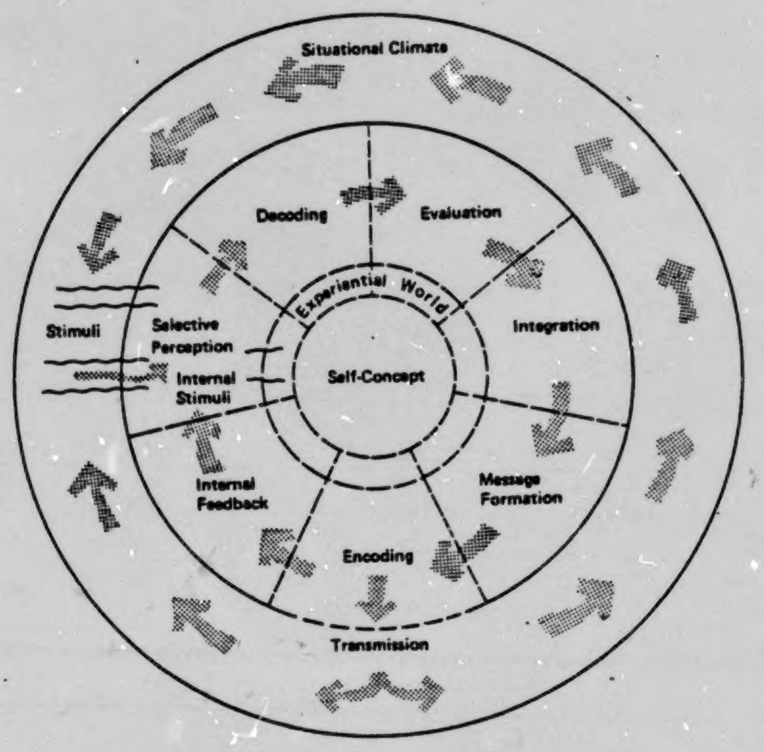
Situational Climate
Decoding
Evaluation
Experiential World
Integration
Stimuli
Selective Perception
Internal Stimuli
Self-Concept
Internal Feedback
Message Formation
Encoding
Transmission

Figure 1.1. The intrapersonal communication process.

Figure 1.1 illustrates the intrapersonal communication process. An individual's self-concept is at the heart of the process, since one's self-concept determines the stimuli selected and the way in which the stimuli will be decoded, evaluated, and integrated into the individual's self-system. The self-concept also determines the message to be transmitted and how it will be sent. As the dotted lines indicate, the self-concept affects and is affected by one's experiential world—all the information accumulated during one's lifetime, including cultural experiences, knowledge, abilities, beliefs, attitudes, and feelings, as well as needs, goals, and expectations for the future. In turn, the person's experiential world affects the entire process of intrapersonal communication. As Figure 1.1 indicates the process is ongoing, circular, and operates as long as stimuli from the situational climate (time, place, and circumstances) or experiential world bombard the individual.

from: Carolyn M. Del Polito. Intrapersonal Communication. Menlo Park, CA: Cummings Publishing Company, 1977, p.3.

Thus, in the example provided earlier, our young, loquacious English teacher selected only those stimuli which reinforced her perception of herself as an effective teacher. Thus, she selectively attended to and decoded only those verbal and nonverbal cues which she could integrate with her past experience and interpret as approval for a job well-done. She sought out and interpreted facial expressions, head nods, and hand raising from students she perceived understood the assignment. Others in the classroom with blank stares or inattentive behavior were not attended to, and thus not perceived as relevant in the interpretation of the communication context.

This teacher undoubtedly felt uncomfortable with her self and her capabilities in this particular teaching situation, reacting to her eighth-grade students as she reacted in her college English class the semester before. Unfortunately, the communication strategies which proved effective with her college professor and peers were inappropriate for her new junior-high school audience. Indeed, the strategies selected (vocabulary, types of examples, organizational pattern, and communication format) were, for the most part, inappropriate for the situational climate of the eighth-grade class of inner-city students preparing for a pep rally (i.e., inappropriate for the time, place, context, persons involved, and their motivations).

Meaning attributed to our communication with ourselves (in intrapersonal communication) and with others (in interpersonal communication), therefore, is dependent upon our individual selective perceptions, which, in turn, are based upon our individual experiential worlds. Consider further the English teacher's classroom in which the communication transaction is compounded by 25 thirteen year-olds, simultaneously interpreting the teacher's message, each from a unique perspective. Each student will select and interpret the teacher's cues from an experiential world which includes different cultural experiences, knowledge, mental and physical abilities, beliefs, attitudes, and feelings, as well as individual needs, goals, and expectations for the current situation and the future (Del Polito, 1977).

The communication code used in the example above apparently was restricted to verbal directions, with limited nonverbal facial and hand gestures. Communication transactions, however, may include such codes as: verbal (i.e., spoken language) or nonverbal (i.e., facial expressions, inflections, gestures, or sign language), or they may be written (in script, typed, or Braille symbols), or in the form of a personal letter or phone call, or a formal essay or television presentation. Yet whatever mode of communication we employ, whatever situation we communicate in, the process remains relatively the same. The meaning of the communication will be determined by the receiver's perception of the message based on his/her experiences, knowledge, beliefs, needs, and expectations in relationship to the purpose, the sender, and the situation.

Research supports the importance of perception in the classroom. Hurt, Scott and McCroskey (1978) noted a student's perception of a teacher heavily influences his/her perception of the message, as well as the amount of cognitive learning which occurs in the classroom (p. 114-115). Importantly, "perceptions of teacher communication behaviors make a difference in student perceptions of effective teaching and in student affect toward the instructor and the course" (Andersen, Norton, and Nussbaum, 1981). Regardless of the teacher's actual behaviors, the student's perception of the teacher's communication style also will impact the student's morale and productivity (Fiedler, 1974).

> It often happens that a message which the teacher intends as supportive or learner-centered, for example, is perceived as dominative or nonsupportive by virtue of the learner's expectancies, his or her construction of paralinguistic features, or the teacher's failure of adaptation. (McLaughlin and Erickson, 1981, p. 398).

Thus, the teacher's smile and "Good morning" may be interpreted as a smirk and "Do I have an excruciating test planned for you" depending upon the student's past experiences with the teacher, his/her expectations of the teacher's behavior, as well as the student's perceptions of him/her*self* and his/her preparedness for the day's quiz.

Similarly, teachers' perceptions of students influence the students' reactions and behaviors in the classroom. In fact, research has shown "teachers' perceptions of children's physical and social attraction affects teachers' expectations which, in turn, have an influential effect upon children's academic achievement and social effectiveness." (Stohl, 1981, p. 367).

The implications of these findings are critical to the improvement of teacher-student interactions in the classroom, particularly when we consider the impact of the teacher's modeling behavior on all students. In reporting major research findings related to nonverbal communication patterns of children with learning disabilities, Lieb-Brilhart (1982) found teachers perceive the social behavior of youngsters with learning disabilities negatively, and do, in fact, react differently to these youngsters than to their non-disabled peers. Johnson and Johnson (1981) similarly identified teacher acceptance/rejection behavior to be "a crucial factor in whether a process of acceptance or rejection occurs in the classroom" (p. 39).

Role of Self in the Communication Process

Basic to one's perceptions, acceptance, and understanding of others are our perceptions, acceptance, and understanding of ourselves. Understanding self-concept theory and the critical role it assumes in the communication process, then, is basic to improving classroom coummunication--in terms of the teacher's perception of self, the impact of that self-perception (self-concept) on the communication transactions with students (and others in the teaching-learning process), and, more consequentially, on the students' perceptions of themselves.

As we examine self-concept theory, four basic propositions emerge which reinforce the importance of understanding the relationship of self-concept to communication in the classroom:

1. Self-concept (one's total perceptual appraisal of oneself--physically, socially, academically, and psychologically) guides and directs behavior, and, thus, our communication with others.
2. An individual's self-concept can be modified or changed in certain social interactions.
3. Although there are a variety of ways self-concept develops (e.g., societal labeling of dominant behavior patterns and social comparisons), self-concept develops primarily through interactions (communication) with others.
4. The more influential interactions are those involving significant others--those persons who provide rewards and punishments and who

reinforce the individual's perception of him/herself (Del Polito, 1973).

For many students, teachers assume the role of "significant others," in that the teachers provide feedback to students regarding their talents and abilities through both verbal and nonverbal interactions--whether through eye-contact, a smile or a frown, a pat on the back, or through a large red letter D on a returned test paper. Through the teacher's communication behavior (intentional or nonintentional), therefore, the student continually perceives (selectively) evaluation data about him or herself. Consequently, if perceived by the student as a "credible" and "personable," the teacher can become a major significant person in the development, maintenance, and hopefully enhancement of the student's self-concept.

A student's perceptions of self and his/her feelings of self-esteem--feelings of ableness, worthiness, and confidence--therefore, are determined in many instances by the classroom teacher through his/her communication transactions with the student. Feelings of self-esteem similarly affect one's feelings about others generally, as well as determine whether one's response to another's communication will be favorable or unfavorable. The teacher's role in instruction and evaluation, therefore, becomes BASIC to how students perceive themselves, which in turn is BASIC to their achievement (behavior) in the classroom (Del Polito, 1973).

Also, it is important to recognize, just as students look to the teacher's verbal and nonverbal cues for approval and for validation as worthy, competent individuals, so too do teachers, as adults, continually evaluate themselves in terms of societal criteria, comparisons with others, and the verbal and nonverbal feedback received from others--particularly persons perceived as credible and concerned, including supervisors, colleagues, and students. Thus, perception of self as a teacher and as a communicator ranks extremely high in determining interaction patterns and behavior with students, with their parents, and with colleagues (Staton-Spicer and Marty-White, 1980). Competence as a teacher, then, is affected directly by one's concept of self as a communicator, determined by one's perceptions of societal rules or norms for effective communication behavior, as well as comparisons of one's communication style with others' styles.* Because a teacher's competence as a communicator can have a significant impact on the development of a student's self-concept, affecting further his/her future academic, career, and social success, teacher educators must assume major responsibility in preparing teacher-trainees for their communication roles in the classroom.

Specifically, teacher educators should prepare teacher-trainees with competencies which will enhance students' self-concepts, realizing that an enhanced self-concept is not an inflated view of oneself, but rather a realistic perception of one's strengths and weaknesses, and an acceptance of that perception. One method used to enhance students' self-concepts is to discuss self-concept theory with them--so that they understand how and why they perceive themselves and their abilities as they do. (For a more detailed review of self-concept theory, see the module, Psychological Education by Angelo V. Boy, in this series).

A second approach, however, deals with teacher behavior, i.e., the teacher's methods of communication (evaluation of and interaction) with students in the classroom. Critical to this approach is the teacher educator's responsibility to help teacher-trainees assess realistically their competencies as communicators in the teaching-learning process. To accept their students, with all of their strengths and weaknesses, teacher-trainees must possess realistic perceptions of themselves as teacher-communicators, fully cognizant of and accepting of their strengths and weaknesses. In addition, they should possess the knowledge of strategies to evaluate and improve their compentencies as communicators.

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*There are a number of excellent references on the effects of teacher self-concept or student development and achievement. While much less has been written on self-concept as a communicator, several sources are listed in the bibliography.

Importantly, all teacher education programs should prepare teacher-trainees with the knowledge, skills, and strategies necessary for identifying, evaluating, and improving their competencies as communicators. Obviously, teacher educators can not, and should not, assume full responsibility for the actual communication training program. Rather, with the assistance of this module, teacher educators can consult with colleagues in other departments on campus (e.g., Communication, Speech and Theatre, Psychology, Counselling) to design a training program most appropriate for the teacher-trainees' needs and future job placements.

The following sections clarify further the communication demands in the classroom environment, beginning first with the barriers to communication effectiveness, followed by suggestions for enhancing communication effectiveness in the classroom, and finally closing with specific implications of communication competence for instruction.

Barriers to Communication Effectiveness

As we examine the teacher's communication in the classroom, it is important, too, to recognize the classroom as an ever-changing communication environment, in which there are numerous opportunities for messages to be misinterpreted or selectively filtered. Barriers in the communication process, often labelled as noise within the system, occur throughout the process, and refer to anything which interferes with accurate message interpretation. While band practice in the next room may interfere with a student's hearing and understanding test instructions, so too might an upset stomach, reliving last night's date, an unintelligible teacher, or test anxiety.

The noise variables affecting information processing in the classroom are many. Included among those identified by Hurt, Scott, and McCroskey (1978) are: physical or sensory limitations; perceptual levels (i.e., attention spans); learned habits; expectations; anxiety and conflict; social and physiological needs; attitudes, beliefs, and values; and message variables (e.g., organization, language intensity, concreteness, and ambiguity) (pp. 73-80). Thus, an overly hot (or cold) room, trains outside the classroom, physical mannerisms of the communicator, unfamiliar vocabulary, mumbled articulation, hunger, yesterday's fight with a best friend, or a new snowfall could be classified as "noise" if selectively attended to and, consequently, interfere with the intended message.

For the classroom mainstreamed with students who have handicapping conditions, each of the noise variables listed above will influence the communication patterns of the classroom teacher and students--with and without disabilities. While one might assume "sensory limitations" such as a hearing loss or a learning disability would create the greatest barriers in communicating with persons with handicapping conditions, in practice, the greatest difficulties are caused by the "attitudes, beliefs, and values," along with the "expectations" and "learned habits" of attributing stereotypical or similar characteristics to unfamiliar persons, objects, or concepts.

The implications of these barriers are outlined in the paper, "Persons with Handicapping Conditions: Implications of Defining the Unexpected Minority," included in Appendix A of this module. The paper emphasizes the impact of defining and categorizing persons with handicapping conditions--particularly important for the teacher meeting students mainstreamed into the classroom for the first time. The perjorative attitudes, beliefs, and values and the concomitant myths and stereotypes maintained by society as a whole are reflected in the "experiential worlds" of teachers and students, and evidenced in "interpersonal relationships, in media presentations, in language, and in the organized structure of health and education policies" (Del Polito, 1982, pp. 3-4). The resulting discrimination, "handicapism," can be equated with the discrimination of racial, ethnic, and other minority groups--a form of noise causing the greatest barrier to accurate message interpretation.

Whether or not the child is labelled "handicapped," a "stigma" or differentness attributed to any student places the youngster in a severe social disadvantage (Del Polito, 1982; Gliedman and Roth, 1980, Goffman, 1963). This is true particularly when the differentness interferes with the student's communication style (e.g., speech impairment, cerebral palsey, hearing impairment, visual impairment, learning disability).

> The scenario is not difficult to visualize. Differences in the person's interaction style is perceived as "deviant," or as possesing "inappropriate" verbal and nonverbal cues. An able-bodied individual with limited personal experiences with disabilities interprets these cues to mean less credibility and less competency, compounding misunderstanding, and confirming the disabled person's non-identity (Del Polito, 1982, p. 5).

Teacher and peer verbal and nonverbal reactions to and communication with the "different" youngster may, indeed, provoke substantial noise in the communication transaction. The subsequent effect on the student's self-concept, communication competence, academic achievement, and future career success, then, are in the purview of the classroom teacher and his/her competence as a communicator. "The crucial factor in whether a process of acceptance or a process of rejection occurs in the classroom is the kind of student-student interaction fostered by the teacher" (Johnson and Johnson, 1982, p. 38). Thus, teacher-trainees, as prospective models for their students, need to examine their own attitudes, values, beliefs, expectations, and learned habits and the influence these variables have on their classroom interactions with all students --irrespective of their race, sex, ethnic or cultural backgound, or handicapping condition. Similarly, teacher-trainees should be prepared to engage students (including those with handicaps) in class discussions and exercises regarding the impact of their experiential worlds and self-concepts on their attitudes and behaviors toward themselves and others, regardless of their individual differences."*

In this regard, teacher-trainees should understand and be able to use content and instructional strategies related to media, language, and nonverbal communication as they impact on an individual's perception of and communication with self and others--as relevant to the context of their individual classrooms and subject matter expertise. For example, examination of print and nonprint media related to an American history class may include school publications, comic books, newspaper accounts, television series, and/or films. Effects of language usage may be reviewed in terms of connotative and denotative definitions, generalizations, and labels used to describe persons with differences in a short story, novel, or poem--or in a biography of a famous chemist or agriculturalist. Nonverbal communication, on the other hand, provides a rich source for examining relational and cultural communication patterns through such nonverbal cues as increased or decreased eye-contact, facial expressions, spatial distances, touching behavior, or time devoted to an interaction. Nonverbal communication, as with media and language can be emphasized and drawn upon in music, business, home economics, language, media, and history courses--among others--to examine and understand the communication behaviors of self and others.*

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*For an indepth review of issues related to mainstreaming exceptional children into the regular classroom, see the module on Variables in Exceptionality by Birch (1982). Texts in classroom communication also provide strategies for dealing with diversity in the classroom (see particularly, Seiler, Schuelke, and Lieb-Brilhart, 1983).

As noted above, each of the information processing variables (e.g., attention span, language intensity, hearing acuity, etc.), can become a barrier to effective communication, affecting the individual's selective exposure, attention, perception, and retention of messages, and can promote stereotypical responses. Each of these "noise" variables, then, can lead to other, more commonly-recognized behavioral listening problems, such as:

- viewing a topic as uninteresting;

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*The bibliography contains a number of excellent references on classroom communication which provide ample information on both impact analysis and classroom strategies in each of these areas.

- criticizing a speaker's delivery instead of the message content;
- getting overstimulated or emotionally involved;
- listening only for facts;
- tolerating or failing to adjust to distractions; and
- listening only to what is easy to understand.

(For additional behavioral listening problems see Barker, 1971, in Appendix C.) A critical "listening" impediment, however, precipitated by these conditions of noise in the system, is what Gibb (1961) has termed, "defensive listening."

Rather than attending to the message as intended by the speaker, the listener may become frustrated, argumentative, or may "tune out" the speaker completely. Defensive listening is aroused when the receiver perceives or anticipates threat. According to Gibb (1961), rather than listening to understand, the receiver focuses on how he/she may dominate, impress, win, or escape threat or punishment. Defensive listening may occur any time the listener "selectively" perceives evaluation, control, hidden motivations, dogmatism, superiority, or little concern for him/herself as a person (non-identity).

For example, a teacher-trainee may perceive comments about his appearance to be his professor's way of exhibiting her superiority and righteousness, when, in fact, the professor genuinely wanted to compliment the trainee for his taste in ties. Whether intentional or not, therefore, communication behaviors which are interpreted by the listener as "controlling" can create a defensive listening posture (facial, gestural, and verbal cues) which, in turn, raises the level of defensiveness in the original communicator. The more defensive one becomes, the less accurate are subsequent perceptions of the speaker's actual message and, therefore, the less effective the communication.

Defensive listening behaviors may surface among teacher-trainees because of their own anxiety as communicators--as teachers--in the classroom. A supportive, yet realistic training environment can enhance the trainee's skills and confidence as a communicator, as well as increase the trainee's knowledge in dealing with their future students' communication concerns.

Three major communication axioms which often are disregarded and consequently create many of the barriers summarized in this section are:

I. Communication is transactional. Communication is a complex, circular process with participants who are constantly changing.

II. One cannot not communicate. As human beings we continually project nonverbal cues. Even while sleeping or staring blankly into space, we communicate messages to ourselves and others.

III. Meanings are in people, not in words. As repeated throughout this module, it is not what is said, or how it is said, but rather the receiver's interpretation of the message cues, with the receiver's interpretation necessarily limited by his/her experiential world.

The next section will examine and recommend strategies for alleviating many barriers to effective classroom communication and will provide suggestions for enhancing the teacher-trainee's competence as a communicator.

Enhancing Communicative Effectiveness

To help alleviate some of the barriers previously discussed and to improve communication effectiveness in the classroom, communication competencies of teacher-trainees (as well as of students) need to be developed. As defined earlier, communication competence involves selecting, adapting, and implementing communication behaviors appropriate for the purpose, audience, and context of the situation. This definition reflects three basic assumptions for communication instruction, appropriate for training teachers as they are for teachers training their students (Allen and Brown, 1976, p.246):

1. the major concern of communication education is with the development of the individual as a message strategist;
2. communication competency is not tied to competency in a particular form of language; and
3. communication behaviors can be modified.

In an important review of research related to communication competence, a Report of the Speech Communication Association (Allen and Brown, 1976) outlined a functional or pragmatic approach for teaching communication competence, identifying five dominant uses of language or communication functions which instruction should emphasize: controlling (persuading), expressing feelings, informing, ritualizing (performing social rituals), and imagining (creative use of language). The report emphasized the interactive nature of each of these predominant functions for both the sender and receiver. Thus,

> In a controlling context, we can be both controller and controlled. If we are being controlled, we need to be able to recognize the other's intention and its appropriateness to the particular context. We must also have a repertoire of behaviors that can confirm for the other that we recognize that intent and assent to it (Allen and Brown, 1976, p. 250).

Focusing on instruction which emphasizes the five communication functions provides a framework for teaching communication competence as well as a relevant approach for instruction in all forms of communication: reading, writing, speaking, and listening. For the prospective teacher, understanding the interaction of functions among the basic communication skills will enhance personal competence as a communicator as well as provide strategies for enhancing students' competencies in all communication activities. The teacher educator can refer to Appendix B which contains detailed definitions of the "functions," sample lesson plans, and a planning matrix to insure instruction covers all functions across all types of communication (i.e., in intrapersonal, dyadic, small group, public, and mediated communication situations).

A pilot cooperative project at Miami University is described by Vogel and Fetzer (1982) (See Appendix A) in which the functions of communication are utilized as the framework for a core requirement course for all students in education certification programs. As discussed in the article, the collaborative efforts of the departments of Communication and Teacher Education has brought about "many positive and productive results" by applying basic communication principles to the classroom environment (p. 37). Similar programs, utilizing the functions of communication as a framework, can be designed by the reader in collaboration with colleagues from appropriate departments/programs on campus.

Three skills which are basic to any training program designed to enhance communication effectiveness are: social sensitivity, active listening, and honest communication (Del Polito, 1973; 1977). These three supportive communication skills are critical to the teacher-trainee's ability to understand self and others, obtain and utilize feedback from others, and most importantly, to adapt and implement appropriate strategies for each of the communication functions (identified earlier) in any communication context; i.e., interactions with one other person, with small groups of persons in team or problem-solving sessions, or with large groups in lecture, discussion, and/or mediated presentations. While the following paragraphs describe these skills, further elaboration and sample exercises are provided in Appendix C.

Social sensitivity refers to one's ability to empathize with the other person: to see, feel, and hear with the other person, to step into the other person's shoes and see the world from his/her perspective, to understand the feelings, thoughts, needs, and goals of the other person. Maximum understanding through social sensitivity occurs when the listener (1) understands the speaker's perceptual world, including the speaker's attitudes, values, beliefs knowledge, culture, social system, past experiences, and future expectations; (2) understands his/her own perceptual world and selectivity processes; (3) understands the content communicated--what is said; and (4) understands the feelings communicated--how the message is said.

To empathize with and become sensitive to the other person, one must listen actively. Active listening demands total commitment to the communication interaction. Active listening implies waiting until the other person completes his/her statement to understand the situation as seen by the speaker. It suggests no evaluation, judgement, agreement, or disagreement. The teacher-trainee, as active listener, therefore, conveys acceptance of the student, along with acceptance of his/her ideas, attitudes, and values. To confirm an understanding and acceptance of the student during active listening, the trainee should communicate "attention" during the interaction both nonverbally (attentive posture, head nods, eye-contact, facial expressions) and verbally (vocalizations which indicate interest in the student's comments). In addition, through paraphrasing, supportive comments, and nonverbal reactions, the teacher-trainee reflects his/her understanding of the student's ideas and feelings. Providing feedback in the form of reflective responses aids to reduce student defensiveness and to keep all channels of communication open.*

In addition, communication which is spontaneous and honest also reduces defensiveness, as well as improves self and other understanding. Honest communication does not mean indiscriminate frankness; rather it implies exposing some of one's self to students, through expressions of ideas, feelings, and attitudes. As we share parts of ourselves with our students, we communicate trust in them, encouraging them to trust us and to share their feelings with us. Thus, as teachers, we expand our experiential worlds on which to base our interpretation of our students and their communications, increasing the likelihood of understanding, acceptance, and more effective communication. A trainee's ability and willingness to be open with students will encourage students to communicate openly and honestly with them, with their peers, and with all others with whom they interact.

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*Active listening exercises are provided in Appendix C; however, for additional instructional strategies, the reader should refer to Sprinthall (1982), Rogers (1970), Cooper (1981), Guerney (1977), and Egan (1977).

While honest communication is facilitated by self-disclosure, teacher-trainees should be prepared to recognize and facilitate appropriate disclosure behavior. Specifically, they should understand and instruct students that disclosures should be (a) appropriate to the situation and to the relationship, and (b) presented only in settings of good will and trust. Because there is risk involved in the sharing process, an atmosphere of warmth and trust must be developed to encourage information sharing (e.g., sharing attitudes, opinions, interests, perceptions, likes and dislikes, fears, anxieties, etc.). Teacher-trainees (and students alike) must recognize each controls when, what, how much, and to whom to disclose. Again, information about the self should be disclosed in contexts appropriate to both the situation and the relationship.

Gibb's (1961) research provides suggestions to help alleviate defensive listening behaviors. He reiterates the need for sensitive, active and honest communication. More specifically, he recommends supportive communication behaviors which include: (a) a problem-solving orientation, in which teacher and students collaborate on seeking solutions to problems; (b) genuine requests for information, rather than implying students change behaviors; (c) spontaneity--honest, and straight-forward communication; and (d) empathy and equality--willingness to share feelings and exhibit trust and respect for students, placing little importance on differences in abilities.

Further support for implementing supportive communication behaviors has been noted by Andersen, Norton and Nussbaum (1981): teachers who are perceived as possessing a more positive communicator style (i.e., general verbal and nonverbal style), more interpersonal solidarity (i.e., psychological and physical closeness), and more immediacy (i.e., closeness communicated through nonverbal behaviors) with students also are perceived more positively.*

In addition, with these competencies, the teacher-trainees should be able to design more effective, cooperative learning environments for students. In a study examining the effects of utilizing cooperative, competitive, and individualistic learning strategies, Johnson et al. (1981) noted "strong evidence for the superiority of cooperation in promoting achievement and productivity" and suggested that

> given the general dissatisfaction with the level of competence achieved by students in the public school system, . . . educators may wish to increase considerably the use of cooperative learning procedures in order to promote higher student achievement" (p. 25).

Cooperative learning environments are created through small group problem-solving sessions in which students work together in arriving at conclusions. By using supportive communication behaviors--social sensitivity, active listening, and honest communication--in the design of learning activities teacher-trainees similarly will be modeling appropriate communication behaviors, enhancing their own and their students' competence and comfort in communication situations.

In the next section, specific programmatic suggestions are provided to prepare teacher-trainees for their roles as classroom communicators.

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*For additional details and strategies for promoting openness, empathy, active listening, and conflict resolution, see the modules Consultation Skills by Meyers, 1982, and Counseling Skills for Classroom Teachers by Sprinthall, 1982.

Implications for Instruction

Communication behaviors within and across all functions of communication (controlling, informing, expressing feelings, ritualizing, and imagining) can be improved. Recommendations from the Speech Communication Association's (SCA) Report on developing communication competence included the following strategies which can be incorporated into all teacher-training programs:

1. Inventory the trainee's repertoire of communication acts and work to expand those repertoires; that is, identify and assess the trainee's skill areas (e.g., presenting information, leading and facilitating group discussions, asking and responding to questions, presenting and defending arguments, resolving conflicts, etc.).
2. Enhance the trainee's ability to critically select appropriate strategies from the repertoire. Understanding the communication process, the context of the interaction, and the audience should guide the trainee in making appropriate selection decisions.
3. Provide opportunities for the trainee to practice the strategies selected. Time should be designated within the teacher-trainee's program for practicing communication skills--with peers, superiors, and students.
4. Provide opportunities for the trainee to evaluate the effectiveness of communication performance, preferably with the assistance of videotape feedback.

These recommendations, integrated with those suggested for enhancing self-concept as a communicator (Del Polito, 1976), provide the following methodology for improving the communication competencies of teacher-trainees. Similarly, this approach can and should be incorporated by trainees for use with their students.

1. Conduct Realistic, Objective Evaluations of Communication Behaviors: Accurate, objective feedback which considers knowledge and abilities in communication as well as content expertise should be sought from competent sources (a) to understand one's true strengths and weaknesses, (b) to accept those strengths and weaknesses, and (c) to modify behaviors to achieve desired competence. With the assistance of expert communicators (perhaps through alliances with departments/schools of communication/speech), current repertoires of communication acts (across functions) of the teacher-trainees can be inventoried and assessed. Personal goals could then be designed in consultation with the trainee to expand his/her repertoire where desired.
2. Establish Realistic Communication Goals: Recognizing the extent of the trainee's repertoire and the skills yet to be developed, again, with the assistance of a communication expert, the trainee should identify an area which he/she wishes to improve and design goals which are meaningful, challenging, attainable (neither too high, nor too low), and clearly defined.

To maximize success in expanding the trainee's repertoire in a particular communication mode (e.g., asking questions, story-telling, leading small group discussions), the strategies selected should be planned, practiced, and evaluated across content areas. Feedback obtained from instructor and classmates can be most helpful if provided in an atmosphere of trust and in a spirit of assisting the "performer" to improve skills (related to both content expertise and communication competence). In addition, teacher-training programs should include videotaped playbacks of presentations/interactions in conjunction with audience feedback. The videotape proves to be an excellent tool for allowing the communicator to observe the product of the planned strategies and to make decisions for modifying future behaviors. Again, consultation with colleagues in communication should be sought to design appropriate strategies for presentation format as well as for oral and written evaluations, while recognizing the limitations and idiosyncracies of the media.

3. Concentrate on Improving Communication Competencies, Not Perfection: Striving for perfection increases the opportunities for the communicator to experience failure in not achieving the "perfection" goal. It is critical, therefore, for trainees to focus on strategies which would help them to improve, not become "perfect." This does not suggest avoiding failure at all costs, but rather, to learn from mistakes, and concentrate on modifying behaviors to improve the communication transaction.

4. Identify, Accept, and Promote Personal Communication Strengths: "Positive self-evaluation in the form of verbal reinforcements" is positively related to an enhanced self-concept (Del Polito, 1977). Once identified, strengths should be accepted and praised. While self-praise is equated

often with braggarts and societal taboos, unless trainees can accept themselves and their strengths as communicators, as well as in their other roles (e.g., as sibling, dancer, mathematician), the less likely they will be able to accept their students and their strengths, limiting the chances for truly effective communication. Often, too, teacher trainees diminish their true accomplishments in communication and, therefore, do not learn from them or expand their repertoires in the skill area.

5. Accept and Promote Others' Strengths and Help Others to Accept and Praise Themselves: This last recommendation repeats the need to assist others in recognizing and accepting themselves--as persons and as communicators. Praise, in all cases, must be accurate and realistic and focused on specific behaviors in the context of the situation.

These recommendations emphasize the need to evaluate continually the effectiveness of the strategies employed in each communication transaction, whether in a telephone conversation with a parent, a lecture presented for the fifteenth time and third year in a row, a conference reprimanding a student for cheating on a test, or a class discussion. For those communication transactions for which planning can occur, a conscious effort in the design of the communication is recommended, particularly for the teacher-in-training.

Selecting appropriate strategies and discussing them in a "strategy paper" focuses the trainee's attention on the rationale for all details of the communication act, and can be incorporated into daily activities by both teacher-trainees and their students. The questions which follow can be applied to any communication event. Basically, the communicator's concern should focus on the receiver, adapting the message to his/her experiential world. All aspects of the message--communicator style, organization, supporting data, nonverbal cues, et cetera--should be adapted to the receiver(s), and appropriate for the purpose and context of the situation (Del Polito, 1976).

Recommended Strategy Questions:

1. Why is this topic relevant for my presentation/interview/discussion?
2. What qualifications do I have to present/discuss this topic?
3. How will I organize this presentation/interview/discussion? Why is this the best organizational pattern?
4. What are the main points I plan to stress? Why?
5. What types of information should I use to support my position and best fulfill my purpose? (Examples, Statistics, Referenced Quotes, etc.)
6. How will I introduce my topic? Why this particular approach?
7. How will I involve my audience (of one or more persons)? What strategies can I use to adapt to their needs, interests, values, and motivations? Why this approach?
8. How will I conclude? Why this approach?

A brief, topical outline can be included to emphasize the importance of an organized, clear message, as well as to help evaluate the approach.

Similarly, evaluating the communication event in written form directs the communicator's attention on what actually occurred. In many cases, if the transaction was less than desired, the individual would prefer to forget it, rather than focusing on the specific strategies which were and were not effective in accomplishing the desired goal. The suggested questions listed below should be answered following any communication act. If both Strategy and Evaluation Responses are written, a clearer assessment of the trainee's progress can be maintained.

Recommended Evaluation Questions:

1. How well did I follow through on my strategy?
2. Was my strategy effective?
3. What went wrong?
4. What went right?
5. What do I need to concentrate on for next time?
6. What can I do to improve my next similar presentation/interaction and insure a more effective communication transaction?

In addition to the above recommendations, instructor guidelines to enhance students' concepts of themselves in the classroom setting are included in Appendix A, with an accompanying evaluation form. These guidelines, based on relevant theoretical and experimental literature, should assist the teacher-trainee in designing an effective classroom communication environment. By incorporating these strategies, teacher-trainees will enhance their students' self-concepts, which, in turn, will impact their classroom communication behavior, their academic achievement, and their overall satisfaction in the class (Del Polito, 1973).

If students--exceptional and nonexceptional alike--are to achieve their full potential in our classrooms, considerable attention should be given to the teacher-trainee's communication competence, in understanding the communication process, and in implementing appropriate communication strategies. While it is not in the purview of this monograph to detail the specifics for asking questions, presenting lectures, conducting interviews, leading small group and class discussions, or other communication acts, sample evaluation forms for a variety of communication activities are included in Appendix C. In addition, numerous texts have been written on each of these topics, including many of the classroom communication references included in the bibliography. Readers are urged, however, to consult with colleagues in their communication/ speech departments on their campuses for resources appropriate to their specific needs.

Fundamentally, effective classroom communication will facilitate growth and learning. The following guidelines (adapted from Hamacheck, 1971) reinforce the importance of enhancing self-concept and communication competencies for teachers in all areas and at all levels of education.

1. Understand that we communicate what we are, not just what we say. We communicate our own self-concepts far more often that we communicate information (subject matter).

2. Understand that anything we do or say could significantly change an individual's attitude about himself/herself for better or for worse. We must understand the implications of our role as persons who are important or"significant" to others if we are to utilize that role properly.

3. Understand that individuals behave in terms of what seems to be true, which means many times communication occurs, not according to what the facts are, but according to how they are perceived.

4. Be willing to deal with what a message means to different people. In the truest sense of the word, we must be willing to deal with the interpretation of a subject as we are to deal with the information about it.

5. Understand that we are not likely to get results simply by telling someone he/she is worthy. Rather, we imply it through trust and the establishment of an atmosphere of mutual respect. One good way to start is to take time to listen to what others have to say and to use their ideas when possible.

6. Understand that behavior which is distant, cold, and rejecting is far less likely to enhance self-concept or communication than behavior which is warm, accepting, and discriminating.

7. Be willing to be flexible in your communication with others.

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APPENDIX A

Publications (reproduced with permission) are included which support and expand the knowledge base relevant to enhancing teacher communication competence in the classroom. They also should provide stimulus material for student discussions.

- Del Polito, C. M. "Persons with Handicapping Conditions: Implications of Defining the Unexpected Minority." A paper presented at the Eastern Communication Association Conference, April, 1982.
- Vogel, R. A. and Fetzu, R. "Improving Classroom Communication Options for the Teacher: A Cooperative Approach." Communication Education, 1982, 31, 33-38.
- Del Polito, C. M. Self-Concept Enhancement and Evaluation: Instructor Guidelines and Evaluation Form from "Teacher Communication in the Classroom: Effects on Student Self-Concept." ERIC Document ED 184 148, February, 1980.
- Effective communication strategies for use with persons who have handicapping conditions from Action Through Advocacy. Research and Training Center in Mental Retardation, Texas Tech University, 1980.
    - Listener Responses
    - Nonverbal Communication
    - Communicating with a Mentally Retarded Person
    - Communicating with a Hearing Impaired Person
    - Communicating with a Visually Impaired Person
    - Communicating with a Physically Handicapped Person
    - Communicating with Developmentally Disabled People

PERSONS WITH HANDICAPPING CONDITIONS: IMPLICATIONS OF DEFINING THE UNEXPECTED MINORITY

by

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Estimates vary; however, the American Coalition of Citizens with Disabilities reports disabilities affect 36 million Americans, i.e., one out of every six people in the United States has some kind of physical or mental impairment. According to surveys reviewed in 1980 by Ferron, nearly 50 percent of the U.S. adult population under the age of 65 reported the presence of a chronic condition; of these, 30 percent were limited in the kind or amount of work they could perform, and therefore, would be classified as "disabled" (Krute and Brudelte, 1980).

Despite the increasing number of persons with disabling conditions, and despite the prevalence of disabilities across sexual, ethnic and socio-economic strata, as a group, "disabled persons have been treated differentially" (Shaver and Curtis, 1981, p.1). Although attitudes of Americans toward persons with disabilities tend to vary depending upon age, education, and socio-economic status, studies over the past forty years indicate surprising consistencies. According to Yuker (1981), most people have similar attitudes toward all persons with disabling conditions regardless of the person's specific impairment. Further, even though "more than fifty percent of the people in the United States publicly express positive attitudes toward disabled persons, most people perceive handicapped persons as in some way different and inferior" to able-bodied individuals (p.2-3). The resulting discrimination has been likened to the discrimination and oppression imposed upon racial, ethnic, and other minority groups, limiting the individual's

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*Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Eastern Communication Association, Hartford, Connecticut, May 6-8, 1982.

potential as a participating member of mainstream society (Bogdan and Biklen, 1977; Telford and Sawrey, 1981; Gliedman and Roth, 1981; Shaver and Curtis, 1981).

In 1977, Bogdan and Biklen introduced the concept of "handicapism" as a paradigm to explain "the social experiences of those who have previously been known as mentally ill, mentally retarded, deaf, crippled, alcoholic, addict, elderly, deformed, deviant, abnormal, disabled, and handicapped" (p.14). Defined as a "set of assumptions and practices that promote the differential and unequal treatment of people because of apparent or assumed physical, mental, or behavioral differences," handicapism has many attributes in common with racism and sexism (p.14). Handicapism, the discrimination of persons with disabilities, emanates from cognitive and ideological prejudices and stereotypes, and is evidenced throughout the organizational structure of society: in personal interactions, in health and educational policies and practices, and in the media which represents the larger society.

While "changes in civil rights for blacks and women have preceeded the social change movement for individuals with handicaps," the 1960's also saw the emergence of protests of disability rights advocates against the negligence and abuses of persons with physical and mental handicaps (Mullens, 1979, p. 20). Whereas disabled persons historically were "cared for and hidden" in restrictive, segregated, and costly institutions, [illegible] litigation (e.g., Pennhurst in Pennsylvania and Willowbrook in New York) forced a reexamination of societal attitudes and treatment toward persons with disabilities. Coalitions have since formed, promoting greater autonomy and personal decision making for disabled individuals. The independent living and deinstitutionalization movements are good examples of concerted efforts to gain legal rights for children, youth, and adults with handicapping conditions (Joe and Rogers, 1981).

Through legislative, judicial, and executive actions, issues such as human dignity, right to individualized treatment, and provision of services in the least restrictive environment have been reinforced. However, the movement toward full physical and social integration of persons with disabilities into mainstream society has been limited. Five years after the Bogdan and Biklen article, handicapism prevails. Persons with handicapping conditions still are prevented from full access to society: in physical accommodations, in education, in employment, and in relationships.

Whether we are disabled or able-bodied educators, policymakers, or practitioners, as persons concerned with interpersonal, public, and mediated communication, we particularly need to be aware of how handicapism influences each of us, just as racism, sexism, ageism, and other negative attitudes influence us and our communication with and behavior toward others.

While a number of publications have been written on issues related to "handicapism," this paper will attempt to provide a basis for further exploration into the scope of discriminatory practices resulting from societal "definitions" of persons who have disabling conditions. More specifically, the purpose of this paper is to provide a glimpse of the impact of the differential and unequal treatment imposed on persons with disabilities by (1) examining the pejorative attitudes obtained in society toward persons defined as "handicapped," and (2) identifying the images, symbols, and terminology which help perpetuate these attitudes. Throughout, the implications of defining and categorizing persons with handicapping conditions, as reflected in interpersonal relationships, in media presentations, in language, and in the organized structure of the health and education policies, will be examined.

As we review the myths and stereotypes influencing our attitudes about persons with disabilities, a major model in defining persons with handicapping conditions repeatedly emerges, i.e., the medical model of disease. In their powerful book, The Unexpected Minority: Handicapped Children in America, Gliedman and Roth (1980) provide a detailed account of how our perceptions of--and interactions with--persons with disabilities are conditioned by society's definition of a "handicap" as "disease" (pp. 18-27). As the authors note:

> In a first encounter the knowledge or perception that a person is handicapped is among the most important clues that we can obtain about his character. Indeed, in many instances the sudden discovery that the person is or is not handicapped suffices to transform our perception of his social persona completely (p.19).

As all too many disabled persons will confirm, they are defined by their visible (or invisible) impairment. "Unlike temporary injuries, a handicap is considered by others to be integral--'essential'--to the handicapped person's social being" (Gliedman and Roth, p. 20). The person will be treated differently and will be expected to behave differently as well. Even with an invisible impairment (e.g., epilepsy, heart problems, or mild retardation), the person is labeled with a stigma, "an undesired differentness," and finds him or herself at a distinct social disadvantage (Goffman, 1963).

In reporting major research findings related to the nonverbal communication patterns of children with learning disabilities, Lieb-Brilhart (1982) supports this contention. Peers, strangers, as well as parents and teachers were found to perceive the social behavior of learning disabled youngsters negatively and, in the case of teachers, react differently to youngsters with learning disabilities than to their non-disabled peers.

The scenario is not difficult to visualize. Differences in the person's interaction style is perceived as "deviant," or as possessing "inappropriate" verbal and nonverbal cues. An able-bodied individual with limited personal experiences with disabilities interprets these cues to mean less credibility and less competency, compounding misunderstandings, and confirming the disabled person's non-identity.

This learned inferiority and the "stigma" attributed to the disabled person reinforces negative self-perceptions, further affecting the bearer's ability to communicate, and "to assume virtually any positive social persona" or "normal social functions" (Gliedman and Roth, p. 23). Documenting his own encounter with chronic illness, Zola (1982b) reiterates the impact of being defined by one's handicap (i.e., always considered incapable of normal function because of one's impairment).

Thus, once diagnosed (i.e., labelled and categorized) as having an impairment, a treatment model is prescribed and accepted by all--patient, family, and service providers. Reactions and interactions with the "diseased" person become treatment-oriented, focusing only on the impairment--the paralyzed leg, the learning disability--with little concern for the person who "owns" the paralyzed leg or the learning problem.

Dependency, a stereotypical, but logical outcome, similarly is promoted by the "disease" model. Zola (1982b) summarizes a personal reaction to a physical handicap:

> Infantilization is the process, invalidation is the result. Being sick calls forth in feelings, behavior and even treatment, a state of dependency most characteristic of children. When the temporary acute state becomes permanent, then too, unfortunately, do the child-like qualities inherent in the role (pp.12-13).

The stigma of non-identity, or what Zola refers to as "invalidation" of persons with disabilities, also contributes to the stereotype which defines handicap as deviant (Gliedman and Roth, 1980; Joe and Rogers, 1981; Yuker, 1981). The segregation and exclusion from the mainstream of society appears justified since the deviancy must be caused by a "sickness" or "disease." In fact, attempts by disabled persons to assert and establish their social abilities in mainstream society are perceived often as "symptoms of maladjustment" (Gliedman and Roth, 1980, p. 41).

In other situations, when the person's impairment does not actually limit his or her ability to function, the opposite stereotype occurs: the person with a disabling condition achieves outstanding success in some aspect of life and is perceived unrealistically as either "superhuman," or as Gliedman and Roth (1980) maintain, no longer handicapped.

> . . . our apparently objective perceptions of handicaps as socially incapacitating biological conditions are the perceptual products of a prior—and unconscious—social construction. Only when our tacit social grammar decrees that the disability is a stigma of deviance do we see a handicapping condition. But the moment that our social grammar decrees otherwise, either because of conspicuous success or because of some combination of social role and setting, we cease to perceive a handicapping condition (Gliedman and Roth, 1980, p. 30).

These stereotypes are reiterated continually in the print and non-print media--from pre-school publications and comic books to newspaper accounts and horror films. Media reflect, reinforce, as well as help formulate individuals' behaviors and attitudes towards others with physical, intellectual, or psychological handicaps.

In reviewing the impact of newspapers and television on a person's attitudes toward individuals with disabling conditions, Yuker (1980) reinforces our general knowledge about media effects, notably: "stereotyped" images of handicapped persons result from what people have read or seen in the media; whereas, those individuals with extended personal experiences with "disabilities" base their beliefs on those experiences, rather than on media reports (p.5).

Results consistent with Yuker's 1981 review were reported both by Donaldson (1980) and Biklen and Bogdan (1978). Biklen and Bogdan surveyed a range of classic literature and contemporary media and concluded: while "few books and films treat disabilities sensitively and accurately, most do not" (p.5). The stereotypes documented by both reviews reflect those perceptions held by individuals with seemingly limited contact and interactions with disabled persons. The images portrayed are generally stereotypical, just as they are with ethnic or other minority groups. As manifestations of handicapism, these stereotypes not only reinforce society's oppression of minority groups, but also tend to (a) reinforce one another as stereotypes; (b) promote opposing concepts--e.g., persons with disabilities are seen as "asexual" on one hand, and as "insatiable 'sex degenerates'" on the other; and (c) distort reality. As Biklen and Bogdan (1978) suggest, "most limitations associated with being disabled derive from society's response to disability," rather than the actual limitation encountered by the impairment (p.5).

While guidelines have been developed for writers, editors, book reviewers and other media developers to assure persons with disabilities are represented positively and fairly (see Appendices A and B), little change has been noted in actual media presentations. The stereotypes identified by Yuker in 1981 differ little from those found in the Biklen and Bogdan 1978 survey--both reflect handicapping conditions equated with the medical model of disease discussed earlier. Yuker's 1981 study showed persons with disabilities (1) abnormally bad and repugnant, and therefore, essentially evil (i.e. diseased); (2) idealized and abnormally good, leading to unrealistic and abnormally high expectations of the individual (i.e., superhuman); (3) primarily dependent on others, requiring "special attention, special facilities, and special support," with little emphasis on the person's ability to cope or to make positive contributions to society; (i.e., dependent and dehumanized); and (4) deviant and strange, and "bizarre and anti-social" (again, deviant).

Note the similarities with the list of stereotypes identified by Biklen and Bogdan (1978), where disabled persons were depicted as: (1) pitiable and pathetic; (2) helpless and dependent--objects of violence; (3) sinister and/or evil; (4) superhuman; (5) bitter, self-pitiers; (b) dependent burdens; (7) comics--laughable, "Mr. Magoo" types; (8) atmosphere--newsdealers or blind musicians; and (9) non-sexual or sex starved (pp. 4-9).

Perhaps most damaging in both studies has been the presentation of disability as central to the plot or the character's role, reinforcing the disabled person's inability to participate fully in everyday life, the non-identity stereotype prevalent in American culture, even among the helping professions.

As Dunn (1980) recounts in "The Drummer I Must March To," a biographical theatrical production written during the onset of her blindness,

> No one seems to be concerned about what I will do with my life. As though now I have an excuse for not giving or sharing or searching for purpose in life. Is being blind what I am "to do?"
>
> Suddenly I'm different, not Susan anymore, . . .
> Suddenly my friends perceive me as a crystal doll
> Too delicate, too fragile to be touched.
> Afraid they may upset me; they step back,
> Choose words with care,
> And put me on the shelf I hate so much.

> I'm still me looking out,
> But what do they see looking in? . . .
> Are they blind, why can't they see me?
> Must blindness always come before my name? . . .
> I am not a blind person; I am a person who happens
> to be blind (pp. 16-19).

Similarities between the prejudicial attitudes toward persons with disabilities and other ethnic and minority groups increase as the medical model of "disease" is explored with its discriminatory stigmas of non-identity, dependency, deviancy, and even the unrealistic expectations of superhuman qualities. In denying "full status to those it wishes to ignore--its minorities, its youth, its women, its elderly--society diminishes them as persons, and having placed them in this diminished state, it can more safely deal with them as helpless" (Zola, 1982b, p.14).

Emphasizing the differences between the discrimination of blacks and the discrimination of disabled persons, however, Gliedman and Roth (1980) state:

> In some ways the handicapped are better off: they meet no organized brutality, no lynch-mob "justice," no Ku Klux Klan rallies. But in other ways the handicapped are surprisingly, much worse off. There is the matter of pride, for example; blacks can, do, and should be proud of their skin color and not want to change it; but no one argues that mental retardation is good, that blindness is beautiful, that doctors should stop research into the causes and cures of cerebral palsy (p.23).

To counteract both the social construction of stereotypes and their media reinforcers, advocates in the disability rights movement have focused to a great extent on the effect of language on people's perceptions (able-bodied and disabled alike), and, therefore, on attitudes of persons with handicapping conditions.

> Visualize the difference between a person confined to a wheelchair compared to a person who uses a wheelchair. Confinement implies "restriction," or "imprisonment" or "restraint" where use signifies "control for a purpose" or "extension of ability." In a similar fashion, conjure the image of a person "suffering" from epilepsy rather than subtler words such as experiences seizures (Mullens, 1979, p. 20).

As communication professionals, we readily recognize the impact of language on an individual's understanding of and reaction to new and "different" stimuli. The language used to discuss and describe persons with disabilities and their handicapping conditions many times includes unwanted generalizations, particularly with categories of handicapping conditions. "Speaking of people as 'the handicapped' or 'the disabled' implies a monolithic group . . . The use of categorical labels has several negative outcomes, but one of the most derogatory practices is to make those descriptors into nouns," (e.g., LD's, epileptics, CP's, trainables, and wheelchair people), therefore equating devaluation with individual differences (Mullens, 1979, p. 21).

Similarly, respect (or lack of respect) for persons with handicapping conditions is communicated through the labels, symbols, and images we use for depicting relationships among persons with and without handicaps. "Rather than doing for or to a person with handicaps, the emphasis of interaction should be on mutual interaction" and on the benefit of "open, respectful" encounters among individuals with varying physical, mental, and social abilities and characteristics (Mullens, 1979, p.23).

Focusing specifically on labels, the Council on Interacial Books for Children (CIBC) urges avoidance of "all terms that dehumanize or objectify disabled persons, all terms that characterize disabled persons as dependent or pitiable, all terms that perpetuate the myth that disabled persons are incapable of participating in the life of a community" (Biklen and Bogdan, 1978, p.8).

As can be anticipated, controversy regarding acceptable terms exists even among the advocates for persons with disabilities. While "handicap" is rejected generally because of its historic connotations of beggars who held "cap in hand," it still appears consistently in legislation designed to protect individuals against discrimination and provide them with appropriate health and education services. For a number of years now, the term exceptional has been favored by some advocacy groups; for others, however, it is considered a euphemism (p.8). In passing Chapter 766, the Massachusetts legislature prohibits labeling of any kind.

> Children with disabilities in Massachusetts are henceforth to be identified only as "children with special needs." The Massachusetts law is considered to be progressive, but there is some criticism that it gives legitimacy to a phrase that emphasizes a person's "neediness" (Biklen & Bogdan, 1978, p.8).

"Disability" and "impairment," also used extensively, add to the definitional dilemma, particularly when one considers health and education services for persons with disabilities and compensation for provision of services are tied to local, state, and federal definitions. As for others in our culture, policymakers are affected not only by advocacy groups, but also by intertwining connotative and denotative meanings which have evolved over years of prejudice and handicapism. Thus, while "defining" persons with handicapping conditions has ethical implications relevant to the promotion of values and attitudes, the process and outcomes of defining also present economic and political implications relevant to society as a whole.

Confusing matters further are the number of denotative definitions which exist for "disability," "handicap," "exceptional," "impairment," and other terms used to classify the growing numbers of persons requiring special services. According to Joe and Rogers (1981),

> There are at least forty separate public and private disability compensation systems available to American workers and their families. Within the federal government alone, there are twenty-three different definitions of disability corresponding to various federal programs, each serving a particular clientele in a particular way (p.15).

Whereas, the Veterans Administration utilizes a strict medical definition for reimbursing a "disability," the disability insurance program (Title II of the Social Security Act) uses "extent of ability to engage in 'substantial gainful activity.'" A means test is attached to this definition for Title XVI of the Social Security Act, which provides supplemental security income (SSI) for disabled persons and their families. "Different eligibility rules and benefit structures in each of these and other programs stem from the very different underlying philosophies and goals of each" (Joe and Rogers, 1981, p.15).

With the enactment of The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (Public Law 94-142), mandating the provision of free and appropriate educational services for all handicapped children and youth between the ages of 3 and 21, the attention of state educational agencies, as well as parents and advocates, has focused on the federal definition of "handicapping condition." Again, compensation for the provision of educational services, including related health services, is determined by the number of children and youth classified as "handicapped."

With few other options, PL 94-142 defines "handicapped" children by categories: ". . . mentally retarded, hard of hearing, deaf, speech impaired, visually handicapped, seriously emotionally disturbed, orthopedically impaired, other health impaired, deaf-blind, multi-handicapped, or having specific learning disabilities, who because of these impairments need special education and related services." This definition extends the definition included in Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 which guarantees the civil rights of persons with physical and mental disabilities. In this Congressional Act, a handicapped person is defined as ". . . any person who has a physical or mental impairment which substantially limits one or more major life activities, has a record of such impairment, or is regarded as having such an impairment." (See Birch in this series for specific definitions.)

In the regulation of the Vocational Education Amendments of 1976 (PL 94-482), persons with handicapping conditions are classified similarly to PL 94-142, with the addition that these children and youth "cannot succeed in the regular vocational education program without special educational assistance, or requires a modified vocational educational program." For educational purposes, therefore, "handicapped" refers to any individual diagnosed as having one of the disabilities identified above, who "because of the limits imposed by the condition, needs special help in regular or vocational education" (Birch, 1981, p.51).

A good differentiation among the terms impairment, disability and handicap is provided by Stevens (1962): whereas an impairment refers to the physical, mental, or psychological problem itself, a disability refers to the limited function or behavior directly or indirectly dependent upon the impairment. For example, an impaired hand (severed nerves or absence of fingers) would result in a similar disability (i.e., lack of digital dexterity with limitations in writing or typing) which may or may not result in a handicap for the individual. As Birch (1981) notes:

> A handicap is measured by the extent to which an impairment, a disability, or both get in the way of normal living, including acquiring an education. Handicap is highly personal,

> for it is the name for an individual's own reactions to the presence of an impairment or disability. The central concept of handicap is this: It consists of the individual's ability to live with that interpretation. Many people have impairments and disabilities. Only some people are handicapped because of them (p.40).

Birch (1981) maintains that special educators have moved away from labelling and their "preoccupation" with categories (p.45). The majority of special education textbooks published since 1976 also support the contention.

Categorization and labelling according to medical diagnoses (e.g., emotionally disturbed, blind, etc.), however, continue to predominate both the policymakers' definitions and the regular classroom teacher's perspective, posing additional constraints for children and youth and their adult counterparts with handicapping conditions. As Joe and Rogers (1981) aptly clarify, individuals may "possess more than one type of disability--or perhaps, a constellation of partial disabilities which do not fall into any discrete class. Categorization based solely on . . . medical labels reflects a linear way of thinking," forcing a focus on deficiencies rather than strengths (p.20).

As identified previously with regard to societal stereotyping, the implications of retaining monolithic classifications for persons with varying disabilities are extensive:

> Compensatory skills are thus not developed, leading to segregation, frustration, economic dependency, loss of self-esteem and motivation. Social expectations tend to reinforce poor performance of disabled persons, and ordinary achievements come to be viewed as the exception, not the rule (Joe and Rogers, 1981, p.21).

Birch (1981) reiterates the crucial need for all persons to "think of exceptional children not in terms of diagnostic categories but instead in terms of the actual assistance needed to attain success"--including development of communication and mobility skills (p.46). This perspective of defining persons with disabilities according to their functional performance is reiterated consistently by advocates in the disability rights movement. A particularly persuasive model is offered by Joe and Rogers (1981) who expand this definition and assert the need to "redefine" disability as a societal problem; i.e., disability is "the sum total of physical, social and economic limitations which an individual suffers as the consequence of the interaction between himself and his environment" (p.18).

> Policies based on this definition would systematically take into account personal adaptations to the handicap, available environmental and/or technological supports, changes over time with age, attitude and motivation, and a variety of possible roles that might be filled in a given profession, thereby reducing the tendency to stereotype all handicapped persons (Joe and Rogers, 1981, p.20).

A definition which takes into account the person's functional abilities in relationship to his or her environment implies new and important perspectives for persons with disabilities in terms of treatment, service delivery, and compensation for the impairment, and in terms of daily interactions with others in the environment. There are also broad implications for those providing health and education services as well as for those establishing policies for service provision and compensation/reimbursement. The ripple of such definitions compound as we reflect on society through our familial, social, and educational institutions, and particularly in communication, where our focus is on message development, interpretation, and impact--whether for intrapersonal, interpersonal, small group, public, or mediated communication situations.

The preceding pages obviously have provided only a glimpse of the social and attitudinal constraints perpetrated on persons defined as "handicapped." While it is not within the scope of this paper to detail lists of the implications of defining the unexpected minority, hopefully, this review will stimulate my colleagues in communication--many temporarily able-bodied--to reexamine their own attitudes, look beyond the stigmas, and consider the extensive ramifications of "handicapism" for the teacher, researcher, and practitioner in communication. By allowing ourselves to become involved in examining, researching, and teaching issues relevant to the needs and rights of persons with handicapping conditions--both in terms of process (i.e., interacting with persons with disabilities, in and outside the classroom) and in terms of content (e.g., language and semantics, attitude change, media effects, and any of the numerous variables which influence the development and presentation of self in initiating, maintaining, and promoting interpersonal relationships with others--disabled and able-bodied alike)--we will help to ensure that all persons obtain their due rights as citizens with full access to mainstream society.

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Appendix A

Guidelines for the Representation of Exceptional Persons in Educational Material

To assure persons with exceptionalities are represented positively and fairly, in print and non-print educational materials, The Council for Exceptional Children in consortium with the National Center on Educational Media and Materials for the Handicapped and the University of Pittsburgh developed the following guidelines. For further clarification, see June B. Mullens, "Making Language Work to Eliminate Handicapism," Education Unlimited, June 1979, pp. 20-24.

Guideline 1: *In print and nonprint educational materials, ten percent of the contents should include or represent children or adults with an exceptionality.*

Guideline 2: *Representation of persons with exceptionalities should be included in materials at all levels (early childhood through adult) and in all areas of study such as:*

- *Career Education*
- *Guidance*
- *Health Studies*
- *Language Arts*
- *Vocational Education*
- *Mathematics*
- *Physical Education*
- *Science*
- *Social Studies*

Guideline 3: *The representation of persons with exceptionalities should be accurate and free from stereotypes.*

Guideline 4: *Persons with exceptionalities should be shown in the restrictive environment. They should be shown participating in activities in a manner that will include them as part of society.*

Guideline 5: *In describing persons with exceptionalities, the language used should be nondiscriminatory and free from value judgements.*

Guideline 6: *Persons with exceptionalities and persons without exceptionalities should be shown interacting in ways that are mutually beneficial.*

Guideline 7: *Materials should provide a variety of appropriate role models of persons with exceptionalities.*

Guideline 8: *Emphasis should be on uniqueness and worth of all persons, rather than on the differences between persons with and without exceptionalities.*

Guideline 9: *Tokenism should be avoided in the representation of persons with exceptionalities.*

Appendix B

Avoiding Handicapist Stereotypes:
GUIDELINES FOR WRITERS, EDITORS AND BOOK REVIEWERS

The guidelines below were prepared by the Center on Human Policy, the center for Independent Living in Berkeley, Disabled in Action of Metropolitan New York and the Council on Interracial Books for Children. They are offered as suggestions to assist authors, editors, reviewers and readers in counteracting the common stereotypes about disabled people that are outlined in the article, "Media Portrayals of Disabled People: A Study in Stereotypes," by Douglas Biklen and Robert Bogdan, Interracial Books (Bulletin for Children, Vol. 8, #6 & 7, P.4-9).

- Shun one-dimensional characterizations of disabled persons. Portray people with disabilities as having individual and complex personalities and capable of a full range of emotions.
- Avoid depicting disabled persons only in the role of receiving; show disabled people interacting as equals and giving as well as receiving. Too often the person with a disability is presented solely as the recipient of pity.
- Avoid presenting physical characteristics of any kind as determining factors of personality. Be especially cautious about implying a correlation between disability and evil.
- Refrain from depicting persons with disabilities as objects of curiosity. It is entirely appropriate to show disabled people as members of an average population or cast of characters. Most disabled people are able to participate in all facets of life and should be depicted in a wide variety of situations.
- A person's disability should not be ridiculed or made the butt of a joke. (Blind people do not mistake fire hydrants for people or bump into every object in their path, despite the myth-making of Mr. Magoo.)
- Avoid the sensational in depicting disabled people. Be wary of the stereotype of disabled persons as either the victims or perpetrators of violence.
- Refrain from endowing disabled characters with superhuman attributes. To do so is to imply that a disabled person must overcompensate and become super-human to win acceptance.
- Avoid a Pollyanna-ish plot that implies a disabled person need only have "the will" and the "right attitude" to succeed. Young readers need insights into the societal barriers that keep disabled people from living full lives-systematic discrimination in employment, education and housing; inaccessible transportation and buildings; and exorbitant expense for neccessities.
- Avoid showing disabled people as non-sexual. Show disabled people in loving relationships and expressing the same sexual needs and desires as non-disabled people.

Robert A. Vogel
Ronald Fetzer

IMPROVING CLASSROOM COMMUNICATION OPTIONS FOR THE TEACHER: A CO-OPERATIVE APPROACH

RATIONALE

There has been in recent years an impetus in teacher education to focus more on the importance of oral communication competencies.[1] Within the last several years, for example, the State of Ohio has mandated a teacher-redesign effort that includes analysis and evaluation of one's performance skills as they relate to teacher behavior. Further, the State of Ohio has called for more clinical and field-based experiences. Besides the student teaching experience, a minimum of one full quarter will now be required in a variety of clinical urban and suburban or rural settings.[2]

The initiation of such re-design efforts calls into question the traditional classroom communication course model; i.e., students enroll in a classroom communication course where for the most part all experiences/exercises are carried out within the class itself. The student upon successful completion often will have a significant time lag before he/she has the opportunity to apply new found knowledge. This situation is further compounded by the fact that such application is carried out under the supervision of cooperating teachers and education faculty who do not share the orientation gained in the classroom communication course.

The special report of teacher educators in speech communication held at the Memphis Conference stressed a need for communication competencies to be developed by our academic area for the development of *all* teacher education regardless of certification area.[3]

In Chapter Four of this document, the committee specifically address these concerns in the areas of measuring teacher competencies, the development of teacher education, the planning of competency based certification for teachers, and the implementation of field experience in teaching education. To achieve these goals based on the recommendations developed at this conference, a carefully planned cooperative approach between departments of Education and Communication merits serious experimentation.

PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

This cooperative approach is still in the pilot phase. The reasons for the long start-up time are first, the intricate logistics associated with such an approach; and second, the formal training of the School of Education faculty and cooperating teachers who will be responsible for the field/clinical implementation phase of the course.

The course is designed as a core requirement for all Miami University students in certification programs, approximately 750 per year. It is to be taken the semester

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prior to the student teaching experience. The conceptual framework is based on work by Ron R. Allen and Kenneth Brown in which communication options are studied within the overall context of communication functions.[4] These functions involve both sending and receiving messages. A person both initiates and responds to messages according to one or all of these basic communication functions.

1. *Controlling*. These are communication options in which the participants' dominant function is to control behavior; for example, commanding, offering, suggesting, permitting, threatening, bargaining, justifying: persuading, and arguing.
2. *Feeling*. These are communication options which express and respond to feelings and attitudes; such as, exclaiming, expressing a state or an attitude, taunting, commiserating, blaming, disagreeing, and rejecting.
3. *Informing*. These are communication options in which the participants' function is to offer or seek information; for example, stating information, questioning, answering, demonstrating, explaining, and acknowledging.
4. *Ritualizing*. These are communication options which serve primarily to maintain social relationships and to facilitate social interaction such as greeting, taking leave, and taking turns in conversation.
5. *Imagining*. These are communication options in which the participants are placed in imaginary situations that include creative behaviors such as role playing, fantasizing, or theorizing.[5]

Still following Allen's & Brown's formalization the course has four broad objectives:

1. Enlarging the future teacher's repertoire of communication options.
2. Selecting criteria for making choices from the repertoire.
3. Implementing the communication options chosen.
4. Evaluating the effectiveness of the communication options employed.[6]

The course is organized into two major components: mass lecture (90 minutes/One meeting per week) and lab/field experience (90 minutes/One meeting per week). The mass lecture portion will be taught by the Communication faculty and the lab/field experience will be supervised by the Education faculty. Both components are under the direction of the Speech Communication department. Prior to the institution of the program, Education faculty will have specialized training, and they will attend the mass lecture portion of the program. The lab/field experience part of the program will operate in student groups of 15 to 20. The mass lecture will provide theory, demonstration, and practicing professionals. The lab/field experience will take place in field school locations as well as clinical classroom settings on the campus. It is the goal of the education faculty to visit, observe, and offer evaluation to each student once during the course calendar. When students meet on campus in the clinical setting, they will share with one another, their field site experiences under the supervision of an education faculty member. Since each student will not have a faculty supervisor present for each field experience, the cooperating teacher (field site teacher working in the public school) will sign lab sheets to verify completion as well as professional evaluation of the college students' course required field activities. This procedure is necessary to fulfill state requirements leading to teacher certification.

This process, although involved, has specific intent. First, enrolled students will all have field experiences supervised by professionals. This supervision allows for professional feedback, shaping the growth and development of communication skills needed in the teaching profession. When field experiences are shared in group settings back on the campus, this same developmental process will be provided vicariously to the other students in the course. We in the communication field have long recognized the value of both experience and observation when we have our students give speeches in class in order to stimulate development of delivery skills. Equally important as the learning from practice is the learning about delivery that comes through the observation of others speaking. Teacher communication skills in our program design will be taught from structured learning experiences in much the same way.

PROGRAM CONTENT

Adapting the Allen and Brown framework the course is structured as follows:

(15 week semester program—3 credit hours)

Unit I. Communication in the Classroom: An Overview

Mass Lecture (2 lectures) This unit provides a systemic model of communication for the classroom teacher.[7]

(1) Introduction of five Communication Functions.
(2) Communication Roles in the Program:
    1) Mass Lecturer
    2) Lab/field experience Supervisor
    3) Co-operating teacher
    4) Pre-professional college students

Lab Sessions:

(1) Orientation to lab group/communication inventory (on campus)
(2) *1st Field site visit*—orientation to professional environment

Unit II. Nonverbal Communication and the Communication Functions

The focus of this unit is on the communication model and the five functions' relationship to space, environment, body language, paralanguage, and artifacts.

Mass Lecture (2 lectures)

(1) World of Nonverbal in the classroom
(2) Demonstration Videotape/commentary

Lab Sessions:

(1) *2nd field site visit:* conduct environmental analysis of nonverbal communication at work
(2) students share their analysis findings with one another (on campus)

Unit III. Ritualizing Function

Mass Lecture (2 lectures) This unit examines the importance of understanding the implications of formal (written) and informal (unwritten) rules as they effect enlargement of communication behaviors, the selection of communication criteria, the implementation and evaluation of communication options. These will be viewed as occurring in relationships between:

a) teacher—student
b) teacher—teacher
c) student—student

Lab Sessions:

(1) *3rd field site visit:* record/analyze the interactions and accompanying behaviors
(2) students share their findings in small groups (on campus)

Unit IV. **Feeling Function**

Mass Lectures (2 lectures) This unit will examine how self concepts of teacher will effect the communication interaction in the classroom. This will be viewed from the perspectives of:

a) teacher—role model
b) teacher—counselor
c) teacher—instructor
d) teacher—facilitator
e) teacher—leader

Lab Sessions:

(1) *4th field site visit:* observe professional at work/record roles, behaviors & interactions.
(2) students share results recorded and analyze the communication functions displayed (on campus)

Unit V. **Informing**

Mass Lecture (3 lectures) This unit is the primary focus of the course and is designed to enhance public speaking, questioning techniques, small group discussion, facilitation of learning activities:

(1) Public speaking: organization/delivery Question/Answer techniques
(2) Small group discussion techniques
(3) Facilitating learning activities: Giving clear directions

Lab Sessions:

(1) *5th field visit*—teaching a lesson plan
(2) *6th field visit*—following up a lesson plan
(3) students share their experiences and lesson plans in small group and fish bowl activities (on campus)

Unit VI. **Imagining**

Mass Lecture (3 lectures) This unit focuses on the use of creative dramatics, story telling, pantomine, improvisation, and puppetry as means of developing creative communication skills and behaviors that motivate learning

(1) Creative dramatics: a communication skill
(2) Story telling: Use of verbal strategies

(3) Pantomine/improvisation/puppetry: combined use of verbal and nonverbal strategies

Lab Sessions:

(1) *7th field visit*—dramatizing lesson unit
(2) *8th field visit*—creating an imaginative learning experience
(3) students share their experiences and lesson plans in small group and fishbowl activities (on campus)

Unit VII. Controlling

Mass Lecture (2 lectures) This unit represents the integration of the total course. The student will learn how to develop controlling communication behaviors based on the integration of ritualizing, feeling, informing, and imagining functions. Controlling functions will be examined from the perspective of the professional teacher's environment.

(1) The communication process: an integrative model
(2) Controlling communication roles and behaviors:
teacher—student
teacher—teacher
teacher—parent (community)

Lab Sessions:

(1) *9th field visit*—recording/observation a controlling communication function e.g., faculty meeting; parent conference
(2) students sharing their experiences/observations/recordings of the controlling communication experience (on campus)

SUMMARY

In summary, through the united efforts of the departments of Communication and Teacher Education, this newly developed program has brought about many positive and productive results:

1. A working implementation of the concerns expressed at the Memphis Conference on Teacher Education in Speech Communication;
2. A working academic program that will accomodate state certification standards being followed on many four year college campuses;
3. An effective use of experiential learning that can be employed as a part of speech communication skill training;
4. A professional and academic working relationship between departments of Communications and Departments of Education in an attempt to make the academic environment of the university serve societal needs.

A program such as this builds upon what has been established within the academic area of speech communication & theatre. By applying basic principles of public speaking, small group discussion, interpersonal communication, and creative dramatics to the unique environment of the classroom, students seeking teacher certification will go into the profession with a solid foundation in the basic communication functions.

NOTES

[1] *ATE Conference Proceedings on Improving Communication In Teacher Education*, Walter S. Forster & Charles A. Sloan, Editors (Dekalb, Illinois: Northern Illinois University, 1979); *Standards For Accreditation of Teacher Education*, (Washington, D.C.: National Council For Accreditation of Teacher Education, 1979), pp. 4–5.

[2] *Standards For Colleges or Universities Preparing Teachers*, Ohio Department of Education (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio Department of Education, 1975), pp. 4–5.

[3] P. Judson Newcombe and R. R. Allen, NEW HORIZONS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION IN SPEECH COMMUNICATION, National Textbook Company in conjunction with the Speech Communication Association, 1974, SCA Action Caucus 1980 on "Maintenance of High School Speech Programs and University Education Programs" stated similar conclusions.

[4] Ron R. Allen and Kenneth L. Brown, *Developing Communication Competence in Children* (Skokie, Illinois: National Textbook Comapny, 1976).

[5] Allen and Brown, pp. 251–252. For further application of these competencies see Barbara Wood, Ed., *Development of Functional Communication Competencies:* Pre K-Grade 6 or Grades 7–12 (Falls Church, Virginia, 1977). Note: the word option has been substituted for acts.

[6] Allen and Brown, p. 248.

[7] Michael J. Duncan and Bruce J. Biddle, *The Study of Teaching* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1974).

SELF-CONCEPT ENHANCEMENT AND EVALUATION

Carolyn M. Del Polito, Ph.D.

Instructor Guidelines

1. Facilitate student-centered learning. Actively assist students to see themselves as planning, purposing, choosing individuals, responsible and accountable. Students can grow, flourish, and develop much more readily when the significant person "projects an inherent trust and belief in their capacity to become what they have potential to become" (Hamachek, 1971, p. 202).

2. Help students to select experiences which reflect their own particular needs, interests, and concerns, provide a challenge, and yet help maximize success. Not all students will be motivated in the same way or interested in the same things; the instructor needs to make success more available in more different ways.

3. Personalize your teaching. Appear sincere, uncalculating, and attuned to students as individuals.

4. Provide the student with flexible, yet definite goals for success. When limits are clear, the individual learns to rely on his/her own judgments and interpretations of events and consequences. This is particularly important for the highly anxious student who requires a structured situation in which to operate.

5. Highlight the student's specific strengths, assets, and skills to aid the student in sorting our his/her own strengths and weaknesses. The student needs to know his/her own capabilities in order to gauge the probability of success.

6. Alleviate ambiguity, disrespect, and rejection in your interactions with students.

7. Maintain a classroom atmosphere of warmth and acceptance. The more positive the students' perceptions of their teacher's feelings toward them, the more positive their self-image, the better their achievement, and the more desirable their classroom behavior. In addition, teachers who like pupils tend to have pupils who accept and like each other.

8. Praise yourself. Recognize and acknowledge your own strong points in the presence of your students. Your recognition of your own strong points will provide an impetus for your students to praise themselves.

9. Do not prejudge your students. Be honest and accurate in your evaluations, while avoiding comparisons with peers. A teacher's expectations for a student's performance is a significant determinant of how the student actually responds.

10. Personalize evaluative comments, giving encouragement to students. Evaluation, whether oral or written, which is more personal, in which the evaluator appears to take into consideration every action, attends to subtleties in behavior and modifies his/her appraisal accordingly, should have a greater impact on the student's self-concept.

11. Provide students with a continuous, long term exposure to a particular appraisal. From a credible and personalistic source, it should have profound effects on self-concept.

12. Provide classroom experiences for each student to receive acceptance from peers.

13. Provide classroom experiences for students to praise others. Persons with high self-esteem show greater acceptance of others.

14. Help students to evaluate themselves realistically. Evaluation should be based on the student's comparison of his/her actual performance with his/her own personal standards.

15. Urge students to concentrate on improvement, rather than perfection.

16. Provide classroom experiences for students to praise themselves. Self-accepting individuals tend to have higher self-concepts. Positive self-evaluation in the form of verbal reinforcements is positively related to self-concept.

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*Del Polito, C.M. The Development, Implementation, and Evaluation of a Self-Concept Enhancement Program, Doctoral Dissertation, Purdue University, 1973.

INSTRUCTOR EVALUATION FOR SELF-CONCEPT ENHANCEMENT

	Date					
A. Instructor's Classroom Behavior:						
1. Provides Student-Centered Learning a. Students see themselves as planning, choosing, responsible, accountable individuals b. Experiences = student needs c. Experiences = challenge d. Experiences = successful outcomes						
2. Provides flexible, yet definite goals						
3. Highlights students' strengths, assets, skills						
4. Is Personalistic (sincere, uncalculating, attuned to students as individuals)						
5. Provides warmth and acceptance a. Alleviates rejection b. Alleviates ambiguity c. Alleviates disrespect						
6. Praises him/herself						
B. Evaluation (Oral and Written):						
1. Honest and accurate						
2. Avoids prejudgment						
3. Personalistic						
4. Encouraging						
5. Avoids comparison with peers						
6. Continuous, consistent appraisal						
C. Classroom Experiences Help Students To:						
1. Accept each other						
2. Praise each other						
3. Evaluate themselves realistically						
4. Concentrate on improvement, not perfection						
5. Praise themselves						

5=Superior; 4=Above Average; 3=Average; 2=Below Average; 1=Poor

Effective Communication Strategies

Your effectiveness as an advocate depends largely on your ability to communicate, that is, to send and receive messages accurately. You must be able to communicate first of all with your protege or client. Since you are supposed to represent his or her interests as though they were your own, you need to be able to determine what those interests are. Some developmentally disabled people have communication handicaps, such as hearing or vision impairments or limited intelligence, and you may need special techniques to help them express themselves and to understand them. You also must be able to communicate with the people, such as teachers, service providers, and administrators, who have the power to make the necessary changes for your client or protege.

Good communication involves more than just talking. It depends on verbal and nonverbal factors, such as voice quality, pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, gestures, facial expression, interpersonal skills, and attitudes. You can improve your communication skills by becoming aware of some of the techniques of effective communication.

Interpersonal skills

A good relationship between two people increases the chance for communication. You listen better if you care about the person who is speaking; also, you are inclined to be open and honest if a listener is responding with respect and understanding. When you let the other person know that you think he or she is a worthwhile person, you create trust. Thus, your attitudes about another person affect how well you communicate. Whether your relationship is personal or professional, communication is more likely to take place if you relate to the other person with empathy, respect, and authenticity.

Empathy

Empathy is recognizing another person's feelings. This is different from sympathy, which is compassion or condolence. Empathy, in effect, is saying, "I may not feel the same way, but I do recognize how you feel." *Being* empathetic is not enough; you must be able to convey your understanding. Here are some ways that you can communicate empathy.

Before you begin to understand how someone feels, you must give him or her your undivided attention. When your protege or client is telling you something, don't let personal problems or irrelevant thoughts distract you.

You can communicate your attentiveness and concern through your nonverbal behavior. Face the person directly, lean slightly forward, and look at the person's eyes.

Responses such as "Yes," "I see," or "mm-hmm" or nodding your head and smiling will encourage a person to continue talking. Silence may be interpreted as indifference or disapproval. Respond frequently and honestly. Don't say "I see" when you don't really understand. To check your understanding, paraphrase what the person has said and preface it with a question such as, "Do I have this right?"

Respect

Respect, the second crucial ingredient in a good relationship, is the unconditional acceptance of another person's behavior, beliefs, opinions, and feelings. This is a "no strings attached" attitude; your continued regard is not based on the person meeting your standards of behavior or beliefs. Acceptance is not the same as agreement. You can disagree with someone and still accept that person's right to his or her own opinions.

Being accepting is sometimes hard to do. Most of us have prejudices, whether we are aware of them or not. You don't have to condone a person's lifestyle, beliefs or behavior, but you should respect his or her right to choose how to think and act.

You can show respect by following the guidelines for communicating empathy. People will feel respected if you listen attentively and check your understanding by asking questions. Avoid arguing, trying to prove that only your ideas are right, and jumping to conclusions before you have enough information.

Showing respect also requires a nonjudgmental attitude. Criticisms such as "Why don't you act your age?" and "That's not the way you're supposed to behave" will usually only cause resentment. Your protege or client will feel accepted and understood if instead of

From: Action Through Advocacy, Research and Training Center in Mental Retardation, Texas Tech University, 1980.

saying, "You shouldn't feel that way," you say, "I can see why you might be angry. Maybe we can think of some things you can do to help the situation."

You can convey respect verbally, but if you are not sincere, your nonverbal behavior can convey your disapproval, embarrassment, repulsion, or insincerity. Nervous fidgeting, blushing, frowning, avoiding eye contact, staring, or moving away from the person will make your true feelings obvious. Nonverbal behavior that shows acceptance and warmth includes smiling, touching, moving closer, eye contact, and relaxed body posture.

Acknowledging your protege's or client's strengths and abilities also shows respect. Your relationship should be a partnership with each of you contributing equally. Patronizing or dominating your protege undermines this relationship. Common forms of patronizing include insincere praise, excessive sympathy, giving unwanted advice, or insisting on doing things for a person that he or she is capable of doing. The dominant "I know what's best for you" attitude is communicated by frequent interruptions, arguments, lectures, and changes of the subject. If all of your communication is to provide solutions and advice and to impose your own ideas, you belittle your protege's ability to accept responsibility. Your respect motivates your protege or client to seek answers to his or her own problems.

Authenticity

Being authentic means being natural, open, and nondefensive. However, it does not mean that you reveal all of your thoughts and feelings all of the time; those you do choose to express must be genuine. Sharing positive feelings with your protege is almost always appropriate, but revealing feelings of anger, disgust, and frustration requires a high degree of trust in your relationship. When you feel it is necessary and appropriate to discuss your negative emotions, phrase them tactfully and in a way that does not blame or criticize your protege: "When you did this, I felt ________. Did you realize that was how I felt?"

Relating your personal experiences, when they are relevant to your protege's problem, is another way to communicate authentically. For example, when your protege is having trouble at work, you might respond, "I remember how uncomfortable I felt when my boss and I had a disagreement." Then go on to explain the incident. Share information about your experiences sparingly and only when relevant to your protege's needs, or it may seem that you are trying to impress your protege with your own accomplishments.

Discrepancies between your verbal and nonverbal behavior may reveal a lack of authenticity. If your conversation is all pleasant and positive, but you tap your fingers on the table, wear a forced smile, and fidget, people will perceive you as dishonest and insincere. Body language can be effective in conveying your genuine care and concern. A pat on the back, a hug, or shaking hands may be an appropriate way to express your feelings if physical contact does not make your protege uncomfortable.

TIPS

1. Pay attention to your protege or client or to anyone else with whom you are interacting.
2. Check your understanding of what a person is saying.
3. Accept the other person's right to his or her own feelings and beliefs.
4. Acknowledge your protege's or client's strengths.
5. Share positive feelings.
6. Be honest.

Listener Responses

Immediately after the average person has heard someone speak, he or she remembers only about half of what was said. Instead of focusing our attention on the speaker, we allow our thoughts to wander, and sometimes they never return to the conversation. How many times have you missed a speaker's message because you were mentally planning a trip or making a shopping list instead of listening?

You can improve your listening habits by developing a few basic skills. One essential skill is the ability to block out distractions. You must be able to concentrate on the ideas being presented in spite of background noise, uncomfortable seating, or preoccupation with your own thoughts.

Good listening requires much more than passively letting sound waves enter your ears. You must be as actively involved as the speaker. While you listen, try to identify the speaker's main ideas and decide which are most important. Compare the speaker's attitudes and opinions with your own. Select the points which you feel are worth remembering and then try to relate them to your own experience.

The response you give to a speaker determines whether your communication continues. Some responses, even when the responder means well, cut off further communication. Such responses include evaluation ("You should . . .," "You are wrong . . ."), advice ("Why don't you . . ."), direction ("You have to . . ."), moralizing ("You ought to . . ."), criticism ("If you had only . . ."), analysis ("What you need is . . ."), and one-upmanship ("You think your problem is bad, you should hear about mine"). These evaluating and criticizing responses make people defensive and resistant to sharing more. The advising and directing responses cut off communication by "solving" and thereby ending the problem. They also prevent the speaker from working out his or her own problem through further talking.

There are basically five ways you can respond to a speaker if your goals are to understand and to encourage the speaker to continue.

1. **Passive listening**

   Passive listening simply lets the speaker know you are still "with" him or her. Several nonverbal signals will encourage the speaker to continue—nodding your head, smiling, and leaning forward. Typical verbal responses used to show you are paying attention include "I see," "really," "yes," and "mm-hmm."

2. **Paraphrasing**

   Paraphrasing is one way to check your understanding of the speaker's ideas. Restate what the speaker has said, using your own words. This is most appropriate when the speaker pauses and is waiting for you to comment. For example:

   Speaker: No matter what I do, my teacher puts me down. I guess I can't do anything right!

   Listener: Am I getting this right? You're beginning to feel like a failure because nothing you do seems to please your teacher.

3. **Echoing**

   When the speaker clearly describes an emotion, restate the idea using the speaker's own words.

   Speaker: I feel scared when I meet new people. Everyone stares at me.

   Listener: You feel scared when you meet people and they stare at you.

4. **Dialogue sustaining**

   If a speaker seems to need reassurance that you are interested, try a response such as, "I'd like to hear about that." When you need more information, dialogue sustaining responses such as, "I'd like to know more about that," and saying "and" or "but" with a questioning inflection may encourage the speaker to continue talking.

   Speaker: I *was* planning to get a job . . .

   Listener: But?

   Speaker: But my mother says she doesn't have time to take me to work and I can't drive.

5. **Active listening**

   Active listening is providing feedback on the emotion the speaker seems to be experiencing. Your feedback helps the person to get in touch with his or her feelings and then to work out solutions independently. Your feedback should be on the same emotional level as the speaker's original statement. Some lead-in phrases you can use are: "You seem to feel really ___________," "Kind of makes you feel ___________," and "It sounds as if you feel sort of ___________ right now."

Speaker: Everybody tells me what to do! I wish just once I could do what I want to.

Listener: I gather you're pretty irritated right now.

Active listening takes time (it would be quicker to evaluate the speaker's feelings and give advice). So don't use it unless you really want to help the person and are willing to take the time. Active listening also means accepting the speaker's feelings without moralizing or trying to change the person.

These responses show a speaker that you are listening. Consciously using these responses also helps you pay attention to the conversation.

TIPS

1. Block out distractions.
2. Think while you listen. Identify the speaker's most important points and relate them to your own ideas and experiences.
3. Suspend your judgment for a while and try to understand the speaker's point of view.
4. Resist evaluating, criticizing, giving solutions, or moralizing.
5. Use one of the five positive listener responses:

    passive listening
    paraphrasing
    echoing
    dialogue sustaining
    active listening

conversation. Society defines the type of touching which is appropriate to a particular situation. For example, your culture may require you to greet someone by shaking hands, rubbing each other's noses, kissing, or embracing. Even though you are limited by cultural rules of behavior, you can still convey personal attitudes through touch. Usually, you initiate more body contact when you like a person and feel comfortable with him or her. People tolerate different amounts of touching, however, so be sure that you are not intruding into the other individual's personal space. Touching can be an effective way to communicate positive feelings if you are sincere and the contact does not make either person uncomfortable.

Facial expression

Perhaps the most important and the most carefully controlled nonverbal signal is facial expression. The face can display a world of emotions—happiness, anger, surprise, sadness, fear, disgust. Appropriate facial expressions can help you convey your ideas and attitudes more accurately than words alone. Yet, most of us have been taught not to show our feelings, especially if they are negative, so we adopt a deadpan facial expression. Expressing extreme rage may not be helpful, but it is certainly less confusing for your listener if you let your face show a degree of irritation rather than smiling while the rest of your body signals tension and anger.

Nonverbal language of handicapped people

Handicapped people send nonverbal messages, as well as receive them. Physical or mental disabilities, or a lack of experience, may prevent people from displaying socially acceptable nonverbal signals, especially those which are used to convey liking. Their body language may give the impression that they are bored, indifferent, or even hostile. Misinterpreting these unintentional and sometimes peculiar behaviors may affect the way you react to handicapped people. Appearance and behavior may conflict in a puzzling way. When a person's appearance sends the message, "This is an adult," we unconsciously expect adult behavior and we may be frustrated when the person doesn't meet this expectation.

Summary

Your ability to send and receive nonverbal messages accurately can be a positive asset in your relationships with other people. You are communicating all the time, even when you are not actually talking.

TIPS

1. Keep the distance between you and the listener appropriate to the relationship and situation.
2. Maintain casual and warm eye contact without staring.
3. Use gestures and facial expressions that are consistent with your meaning and feelings.
4. Use handshakes, pats on the back, and hugs to reinforce positive feelings when you and another person feel comfortable with these contacts.
5. Interpret a handicapped person's nonverbal language cautiously.

Nonverbal Communication

As we interact with others, we constantly send nonverbal messages through our body movements, facial expressions, and gestures. The ability to send these nonverbal signals is innate, but nonverbal communication is also a skill that can be improved through practice.

Personal space

One of the nonverbal ways we communicate our relationship to people is by the distance we keep between us. We each have an invisible personal territory surrounding us, called personal space. The boundaries of your personal space contract and expand depending on your emotions, the activity you are involved in, your cultural background, and whether the relationship is intimate, personal, social, or public. Most of your daily communication occurs in the personal and social zones. During conversation, people usually maintain a personal distance of two and a half to four feet. At social gatherings, the appropriate distance for conversation increases to four to seven feet.

People are very disturbed by intrusions into their personal space. If someone gets too close to you, you feel nervous and uncomfortable. You may try to move away but when that is not possible you tense your muscles and possibly turn your head away. As a last resort, you may try to protect your space by placing an object such as a purse or a briefcase between you and the other person.

Eye contact

Eye contact is also an important nonverbal signal. When two people look at each other and smile or nod, this is usually understood to be a joint agreement to begin a conversation. As a good listener, you look at the other person's face, especially the eyes; looking away indicates that you are ready to end the conversation. The amount of eye contact you use can communicate emotions and attitudes. Avoiding eye contact conveys shame, embarrassment, anxiety, or a lack of confidence. The more eye contact you have, the more likely the other person will be to see you as friendly, mature, and sincere. However, this is only true up to the point where a normal gaze becomes a stare. Staring may make the other person feel nervous and defensive because it is seen as a sign of contempt or disapproval. To stare at someone is equivalent to saying, "I'm better than you" or "I don't approve of what you're doing."

A word of caution about interpreting eye contact: the rules for appropriate eye contact vary with sex, class, age, and culture. So, when another person avoids looking at you, for example, he or she may actually be frightened, embarrassed, depressed, or nervous or may simply belong to an ethnic group with different visual customs. For example, black children are taught to lower their eyes as a sign of respect for teachers and ministers.

Gestures

We use many different kinds of body movements to support our verbal communication. Some of these movements are conventional gestures such as a head nod for "yes." Other movements are unique to an individual or a situation (for example, a fraternity's secret handshake). Body movements serve two basic purposes for communication: they help to clarify the speaker's ideas or they express emotions and attitudes. Descriptive gestures help to illustrate objects or actions that are difficult to explain with words alone. You might use descriptive gestures to demonstrate how to kick a football, how to hold a baby, or how to eat with chopsticks. Gestures might also help you to tell someone how long the fish was that got away, how tall a basketball player is, or how you narrowly avoided an accident.

Most gestures associated with emotion are spontaneous and are not primarily intended to communicate. When you are tense, you may run your fingers through your hair, clutch the arms of the chair, play with an object, or move about aimlessly. Some gestural messages about emotion are sent deliberately—clapping to show approval or shaking your fist in anger.

Condescending gestures—such as patting the head of a mentally retarded adult—will damage a relationship.

Touching

Touching is another way we use our bodies to communicate. Greetings, farewells, and congratulations usually include physical contact. Touch may also be used to attract someone's attention so that you can begin a

Communicating with a Mentally Retarded Person

The effects of mental retardation on speech and language development may be so mild that the person has no speech problems or only minor articulation errors; or the effects may be so severe that the person will never develop functional speech.

Some people who lack *expressive* language (ability to speak, write, or gesture) have *receptive* language (ability to understand what is said to them).

Assess your protege's or client's verbal skills with an open mind. If the person has normal skills, you may not need to adjust your usual communication style. But if there are limitations, you must make extra efforts so that the protege will understand the issue and so that you will understand his or her point of view.

To avoid simply imposing your views on a retarded person, you need to take the time to explain and to listen.

Work with the person's parents, teachers, and social workers, and with the advocacy staff for suggestions on effective methods of communication. Being consistent with others who interact with the person will help him or her learn.

Some mentally retarded people have communication problems because their environments are limited. You will help them gain language ability and social interaction skills by letting them experience many normal activities.

TIPS

1. Try to keep your surroundings free from distractions. Remove any unnecessary objects in the area and keep background noise to a minimum. For example, turn off the radio and shut the window to reduce street sounds.

   If the person is too distracted by things happening in the room, you may need to move to another room or change location within the room. For example, in a busy coffee shop you might move to an isolated corner or sit with your backs to the activity.

2. Establish eye contact before you begin to speak, and maintain it as long as possible.

   Say the person's name often.

   Touch the person lightly on the arm or shoulder when you seem to be losing his or her attention. It may be necessary to move the face of a severely mentally retarded or highly distractible person toward you.

3. Speak expressively with appropriate gestures, facial expressions, and body movements. These nonverbal cues add information that make your ideas easier to understand. For example, when you say, "Let's go eat," to a person with a limited understanding of speech, you might gesture spooning food into your mouth.

4. Communicating with a person who does not have expressive language and who does not seem to respond to what you say requires frequent sensory cues. For example, mimic the activity you are talking about with gestures, physically move the person's hands, head, or feet to perform the activity you are describing, and try to get eye contact. Touch, hug, and pat in order to guide and affirm, combining these cues with the appropriate verbal comments. Resist your impulse to stop talking. Even if there is no apparent response, hearing your speech is good training for the retarded person.

5. Speak slowly and clearly, but don't exaggerate the inflection or tone of your voice. Exaggerations call attention to themselves rather than to what you are saying and are distracting and confusing.

6. Speak in "here and now" concrete terms. Give specific examples and demonstrate whenever possible. Instead of saying, "It's time to clean up" say, "Wash your hands in the bathroom now." Refer to "chair" instead of "furniture"; "apple" instead of "fruit"; "Mrs. Smith" instead of "your teacher."

7. Emphasize key words. For example, say, "Please bring me the *blue* glass."

   Repeat important statements, and use different words if the listener does not understand.

8. Be positive in giving directions. Instead of saying "Don't kick," say, "I'd like you to keep your feet on the floor." In this way you give the person a goal rather than calling attention to (and possibly reinforcing) inappropriate behavior.

9. Give directions immediately before the activity to be performed and avoid lists of things to do. If you say before you go into a restaurant, "When we get in the restaurant, you will first need to wash your hands, then come back to the table and unfold your napkin . . .," the retarded person may not remember and act on these directions without prompting. Instead, give the directions one at a time when you want the task performed.

10. Check frequently to be sure the person is understanding. It is pointless to ask, "Do you understand?" Instead, ask the person to repeat what you have said or ask a question that requires a specific answer, such as, "What are you supposed to do tomorrow?"

11. Ask open-ended and either-or questions rather than questions that can be answered with *yes* or *no*. Retarded people have a tendency to say *yes* when given a choice of yes or no, so such a response does not necessarily give you the right information. Instead, let the person describe a situation or give a choice of answers neither of which is obviously the right one. Be sure the alternatives you give cover all the possible situations.

    Examples

    yes-no question

        Did the man bite your arm?
        (the response will likely be yes)

    open-ended question

        Tell me what happened this morning.
        (the person must describe the situation)

    either-or questions

        Did this problem happen today or yesterday?

        Are you talking about a man or a woman?

        (neither alternative is obviously better; therefore the choice the person makes is likely to be accurate)

12. Don't pretend to understand. It is better to ask the person to repeat what he or she has said several times than to agree with something you don't understand. (You may be unpleasantly surprised when you find out what you have agreed to!) Say, "Tell me again." If you don't get a completely understandable answer, build from a particular point you can confirm. For example, ask, "Am I getting this right? This morning someone bit your arm."

13. Smile, nod, and lean forward while the speaker is talking. These signs that you are interested encourage the person to continue.

14. Be prepared to wait. The person with mental retardation may function slowly. Do not anticipate the speaker's response and finish sentences for him or her. Sometimes suggesting a key word the speaker is having trouble with will help the speaker keep going, but retarded people need to gain experience and confidence in their own speech.

15. When you note signs of fatigue, irritability, or disinterest, it is a good idea to change activities, slow down, make the task simpler, or take a break. One such sign is increased distractibility. Another sign is continued repetition of a response when it is no longer appropriate (for example, "want to go home," "time to go home," "want to go home").

16. Don't give a choice if you are not sincere. For example, don't say, "Would you like to come with me?" if the person *must* go with you. Instead say, "Let's go back to the cottage now." Giving choices when there are real options is good, though, because it reinforces decision-making. For example, say, "Would you like to come with me or would you like to stay at school?"

17. Sometimes the speech or behavior of a retarded person will be bizarre or otherwise inappropriate. The reason may be either lack of information and social skills or desire to get attention. How you respond will depend in part on the reason.

It is important to correct inappropriate speech or behavior resulting from lack of information. If you don't correct it you are essentially giving your approval and increasing the likelihood that it will happen again. For example, if a retarded person on a public bus begins to pat a stranger, try to divert the retarded person's attention and break the chain of events. You might do this by saying, "Please bring me my purse." Then explain with empathy and with regard for the person's self-esteem what the appropriate behavior is. For example, say, "That little girl you were touching is pretty, isn't she? But people don't touch each other until they are good friends. See how all the other people on the bus are holding their hands in their laps."

If the inappropriate behavior or speech is attention-getting, ignore it and direct the person to an appropriate topic or task. You might walk away, continue with what you are doing, repeat what you have been asking, or ask the person to do something that will interrupt the behavior or speech.

Give the person abundant attention when he or she behaves and speaks appropriately to diminish the need for negative attention.

18. Treat adults with mental retardation as adults, not as children. Use their proper names, and show respect when you introduce them to others. Consider the varying degrees of respect conveyed by the following introductions:

    "This is Billy. He's retarded."

    "This is Billy."

    "I'd like you to meet Bill Brown."

    When you praise an adult, do it appropriately. "You did a fine job" is certainly more appropriate for an adult than "That's a good boy." Avoid talking down to a retarded adult.

19. Talk *to* the mentally retarded person, not *about* him or her. No matter what the person's level of understanding, it is rude to discuss a person when he or she is present.

Communicating with a Hearing Impaired Person

Although some hearing impaired people possess adequate speech for basic social expression, those with profound hearing losses often do not learn to speak intelligibly. Thus, many deaf persons use written or manual communication as a supplement to or substitute for speech.

The term *manual communication* refers to several systems in which hand or body movements represent ideas, objects, actions, etc. If an idea cannot be expressed through manual signs, it is fingerspelled. *Fingerspelling* consists of twenty-six handshapes that correspond to the twenty-six letters of the Roman alphabet. Fingerspelling differs from *sign language*, which uses hand movements for words and phrases rather than single letters. To aid them in understanding the speech of others, hearing impaired people may rely on visible speech cues, facial expressions, and gestures, as well as the language and situational context. This method of using vision to partially compensate for hearing loss is called *speechreading* (formerly called lipreading).

Whatever special communication techniques your protege or client employs, there are several things you can do to make your communication more effective.

TIPS

1. The room should be sufficiently quiet to permit your voice to be heard with little difficulty. If there is background noise, such as footsteps, conversational babble, traffic rumbling by, loud heating and cooling units, minimize it as much as possible (close windows, turn off furnaces, move to a quieter room). Background noise may prevent the hearing impaired person from using residual hearing. Echo is less of a problem in small rooms and in rooms with carpet and drapery.

2. Position yourself directly in front of the person to whom you are speaking, rather than behind or to the side of him or her. Keep the distance between you as small as possible. Speechreading is easiest at five feet or less.

3. Try not to stand in front of a light source (for example, a window). Light behind you may throw shadows on your face and distort the normal movements of your mouth. The light should shine on your face rather than in the eyes of the person attempting to understand you.

4. Establish eye contact before you begin to speak. You may need to attract your listener's attention with a light touch on the arm or shoulder.

5. Provide a clear view of your face. Avoid actions which hide your mouth and reduce the accuracy of speechreading: resting your head on your hand, turning your head, waving your hands, smoking, chewing, and holding things in front of your face. Certain physical features can also affect speechreading. A moustache or beard may hinder speechreading by partially obscuring the mouth; lipstick may define the lips and enhance speechreading.

6. Speak clearly but naturally. Use your normal speed and loudness level unless asked to change. Speakers sometimes use a very slow rate, exaggerate their mouth movements, or shout, hoping to improve understanding. Actually, these efforts are more confusing than helpful.

7. Speak expressively; use gestures, facial expression, and body movements to convey mood and feeling. Deaf persons may misunderstand figures of speech ("the foot of a mountain"), puns, and sarcasm because they cannot hear the accompanying variations in tone, inflection, and stress. Thus, shrugging your shoulders, raising your eyebrows, or shaking your fist may relay an idea more accurately than words alone. Avoid exaggerated gestures, however, because these distract the attention of the speechreader from the basic point of focus—the face.

8. Use short, simple, complete sentences. Keep your language precise and concrete, rather than abstract. A general term such as "food" is more abstract than the word "apple," which refers to a specific fruit. Abstract words have vague meanings (for example, "nourishment in solid form"), which are difficult for the hearing impaired

person to grasp. Words which have many different meanings, such as "great," "down," and "over," are also confusing to the hearing impaired individual.

9. Repeat key words and statements and avoid changing the subject abruptly. Check comprehension frequently by asking questions or asking the listener to repeat what you have said. Deaf persons may pretend to understand when they do not (just as many hearing people do). When a hearing impaired person joins a group, make sure he or she knows the subject being talked about.

10. When a hearing impaired individual has difficulty understanding an important point, rephrase the idea rather than repeat the same words. Only one third of English sounds are visible to the speechreader. Words such as "king" and "her" cannot be speechread because they contain sounds which are produced by hidden movements inside the mouth. Many of the sounds which are visible are homophenous; that is, they look exactly like one or two other sounds. Therefore, the words "Pete," "beet," "mean," "bead," "bean," and "meat" appear the same to the speechreader.

11. If your listener is able to use some residual hearing, you may find it useful to lower your pitch somewhat. A high pitched voice (usually a woman's voice) is more difficult to understand.

12. Lacking the auditory feedback we use to monitor our own voices, the severely hearing impaired person may develop speech which is excessively loud, high pitched, monotonous, breathy, and nasal. If you have difficulty understanding a hearing impaired speaker, ask an open-ended question (for example, "Would you tell me about your family?"). A lengthy answer may give you time to become accustomed to the person's speech and language patterns. When you cannot understand a statement, ask the person to repeat or elaborate on what he or she has said. If this fails, a gestural or written mode of communication may be more effective than speech.

13. Do not assume that a deaf person's communication problems indicate a lack of intelligence. A profound hearing loss disrupts language acquisition to such an extent that deaf adults rarely have the verbal skills of a hearing 10-year-old child. The most obvious deficits in the language of the hearing impaired are a limited vocabulary and difficulty with syntax (arranging words into sentences). Reasons often cited for these problems are a lack of language stimulation and the fact that the syntactic rules of American Sign Language are quite different from the rules of English.

14. If you know any sign language, ask the person with whom you are talking if he or she would like for you to use it. Some people prefer to communicate through speech alone. Even if both of you agree to use signs, you may have difficulty communicating if you have learned different systems. Sign systems currently used in the United States include: American Sign Language (ASL), Systematic Sign Language, Signing Exact English, Seeing Essential English, Linguistics of Visual English, Signed English, and Manual English.

15. If your protege or client communicates primarily through signs and fingerspelling, and you are not familiar with this method, an interpreter may be necessary. An interpreter simply translates the conversation; he or she does not think or answer for the hearing impaired person. When using an interpreter, look at your protege or client and carry on the conversation as if talking to a person with normal hearing.

16. Watch for signs of fatigue in your listener. Following a conversation requires greater effort on the part of a hearing impaired individual, and the stress may make him or her tired, irritable, and tense. In addition, *tinnitus*, a noise or ringing in the ears, may be so annoying that it increases fatigue.

Communicating with a Visually Impaired Person

Most people find it obvious that a disability which affects speech or hearing will interfere seriously with effective communication. The effect of a visual impairment, however, may not be so obvious. Harold Krents is an attorney who was blinded at age 9. Krents, who was the inspiration for the play and film, *Butterflies Are Free*, has found that some people speak to blind persons as if they were unable to speak or hear normally. People may exaggerate their pronunciation, shout, or whisper in front of a blind person.

TIPS

1. Introduce a blind person just as you would anyone else. It is inappropriate and also unnecessary to say, for example, "This is Jim Jones. Jim is blind."
2. Use words such as "look" and "see" comfortably. These words are a part of English vocabulary and it is unnatural to avoid using them.
3. When approaching a person with a visual handicap, always state your name. Unless he or she knows you well, do not expect a blind person to be able to identify you by your voice, especially in noisy surroundings.
4. Let the person with a visual problem know when you are about to leave. Do not walk away without saying anything.
5. If the person you are talking to has some limited vision, do not stand with your back to a window. The glare may be uncomfortable and cause eye fatigue for the person who has some vision.
6. A visually handicapped person may need verbal cues to help compensate for the loss of information usually obtained from facial expressions, gestures, and body movements. For example, persons with normal sight know when a question is directed toward them because the speaker looks at them. A blind person may not realize that a question is meant for him or her unless you preface it with his or her name ("Bob, what is your address?").
7. We normally judge whether a person is paying attention by the amount of eye contact used. When speaking to a person with a visual handicap, repeat his or her name often and ask questions to be sure he or she is "with" you.
8. Vision impairment does not necessarily mean a lack of intelligence. Be cautious in making assumptions and evaluations.

Communicating with a Physically Handicapped Person

The majority of people who have motor damage, especially those with cerebral palsy, have mild to moderate communication difficulties. Damage to the central nervous system may interfere with the production of speech sounds and with the rhythm and rate of speech. The most common characteristics of motor speech disorders are imprecise production of consonant sounds, slow effortful speech, and difficulty in control of pitch and loudness. When muscle function is impaired, speech may be accompanied by facial distortions, drooling, and random body movements.

These behaviors often distract listeners and make them feel uncomfortable; you may have to make a conscious effort to pay attention to what the speaker is saying. Also, the physical tension associated with speaking and the difficulty in being understood often discourage handicapped people from attempting to communicate; to overcome this reluctance, you need to be accepting, relaxed, and interested.

Severely physically handicapped people may not be able to communicate effectively with speech. As a supplement to or substitute for speech, these people may use one of the more than one hundred existing nonspeech systems. These nonspeech modes include sign language, pantomime, Morse code, communication boards (symbols printed on paper, cardboard, plastic, Masonite, or plywood), manipulatable symbols, drawn or written symbols, machine-generated speech, braille, and adapted electric typewriters.

The effect of the motor disability itself may be increased by hearing loss, mental retardation, defective oral sensation, seizures, perseveration, hyperactivity, distractibility, or psychological problems.

TIPS

1. When you meet a person with an unfamiliar disability, you may have to consciously avoid staring. At the same time, it is a mistake to avoid eye contact because you feel uncomfortable. Instead, look at the person in the same way you look at a nondisabled person, with eye contact and a smile or greeting.

2. Speech intelligibility of a person with a motor speech disorder will often improve after you become accustomed to the distorted speech pattern. You can obtain a good sample of the person's speech by asking a question which requires a lengthy answer (for example, "What do you enjoy doing?") or by having him or her read aloud.

3. Allow a long response time from someone who has a motor speech disorder. A physical disability may increase the time needed to initiate speech.

4. Do not be offended if a person who speaks with some physical tension seems reluctant to converse. This may be because of the great effort the person expends in order to speak. Encourage the person to speak and create an accepting atmosphere by using eye contact, smiling, leaning forward, and nodding.

5. If the person uses a nonspeech communication system, become acquainted with the way the system works and benefits. If you have reservations about nonvocal communication, you are likely to convey this attitude to the handicapped person. If, on the other hand, you are willing to accept the nonvocal method as a functional means of communicating, you will convey your respect to your protege or client. This can only enhance your relationship with him or her.

6. Respect the personal space of a person with a physical handicap. You must be close enough to be easily seen and heard, but realize that a person with a physical handicap may not be able to protect his or her personal space. Personal space includes any equipment an individual uses; leaning on a person's wheelchair, for example, is rude and may even seem threatening.

7. If the handicapped person must remain seated, try to sit also so that you can maintain the same eye level. Even if you maintain a comfortable distance, you may still appear to be threatening and dominant if you stand. This is the teacher-pupil or boss-employee position.

8. Be sensitive about touching someone with a neurological handicap. A pat on the back or a hug is a pleasant, positive experience for most people, but for someone with neurological damage, another person's touch may be irritating or even frightening. This does not mean that you should avoid touching completely; just move slowly so you don't startle the person and use firm pressure (a light touch may tickle).

9. To keep the attention of a hyperactive or distractible person, call the person's name frequently or touch him or her on the arm or shoulder. If the person cannot focus attention on one activity, limit the number of distractions, such as unnecessary furniture and equipment, bright, patterned wallpaper or carpet, or an uncovered window.

10. If you note signs of fatigue, anxiety, irritability, or disinterest, change activities, slow down, make the task simpler, or take a break. Perseveration (the continued repetition of a response when it is no longer appropriate) is likely to occur when an individual is tired, when situations change rapidly, or when a task is too difficult.

11. Physical handicaps and speech disorders do not mean a lack of intelligence. Focus on the person's abilities, not disabilities.

Session Three, Part Five

Communicating with Developmentally Disabled People

Purpose To give advocates skills in communicating with people who have communication handicaps

Method Trainer's presentation and group discussion

Materials Copies for group members of the tips on the specific disabilities you will cover

Optional: Audio or video materials to simulate and explain handicaps

Trainer's presentation and group discussion

Tips on communicating with handicapped people

15-30 minutes for each disability

All of the general principles about communication presented so far in the training apply to communication with handicapped people. But when there are particular communication handicaps, such as mental retardation, hearing or vision impairments, or motor speech disorders, there are some special ways to facilitate communication.

The basic procedure for all four sets of tips (mental retardation, hearing impairment, vision impairment, and physical handicap) is the same:

> Hand out copies of the tips on the specific disability you will be covering.
>
> Give the group about 5 minutes to read the tips.
>
> Read the tips aloud, one at a time, and demonstrate or illustrate each point.
>
> Invite participation and questions from the advocates.

These tips basically provide information on things advocates can do to communicate effectively. But to gain skill in using the techniques, advocates need practice as well as information. You need to make the tips concrete and relevant to their own experience and to involve them in thinking of applications of the facts so that they will be ready to practice.

Suggestions for specific ways to involve trainees in the discussion are given below for a few of the tips on mental retardation. You can use similar techniques for involving trainees as you go over the other tips on mental retardation and other communication handicaps. In addition, some general suggestions for involving trainees are given in the tips for communicating with hearing impaired, visually impaired, or physically handicapped persons.

If you are following the recommended schedule for training and matching volunteers that is given in "Tips for Trainers," most of the group participants will have had some contact with their clients or proteges, so they should have plenty of questions and examples.

Encourage them to raise questions regarding their own encounters with disabled people by asking, "Has anyone here experienced this type of situation?" as you go over the tips. Ask them also to add tips to the lists on the basis of their experience if they have some ideas not included here.

Tips on communicating with a mentally retarded person

15-30 minutes

Tip #1. Ask advocates to look around the room you are in to see whether there would be ways to minimize distractions in this setting.

Tip #2. Demonstrate by touching the arm of one of the group members. Ask one of them to demonstrate turning the face of a person toward them and getting eye contact. Let each person practice with the person sitting next to him or her.

Tip #3. Ask a group member to illustrate speaking first nonexpressively and then expressively the words, "I drove my friend's little sports car today."

Tip #4. Ask an advocate to play the role of a low verbal person learning the task of folding a piece of paper in half, then in half again, as one might fold a four-panel brochure. First demonstrate the task. Then manipulate the person's arms and hands to do the job. Be sure to give verbal directions while demonstrating and giving sensory cues.

Tip #5. Demonstrate by rereading the tip with exaggerated inflections and excessively slow speech.

Tip #6. Ask an advocate what one might say instead of, "Let's get dressed now."

Illustrate or demonstrate the remaining tips in similar ways.

Tips on communicating with a hearing impaired person

15-30 minutes

Borrow a record from the public library, speech and hearing clinic, or the educational service center that simulates what a hearing impaired person hears. Two such records are:

1. "Getting Through: A Guide to Better Understanding of the Hard of Hearing"
   (Zenith Radio Corporation)
2. "How They Hear"
   (Gordon N. Stowe & Associates, 3217 Doolittle Drive, Northbrook, IL 60062 $11.00)

Playing such a record will help advocates understand hearing impairments and the necessity of minimizing their problems by following the suggestions in the tips.

Then review each of the tips, illustrating or demonstrating where possible.

Tips on communicating with a visually impaired person

15 minutes

The vision loss and its consequences for communication can be simulated by using blindfolds. You can illustrate the tips by having one advocate role play a blind person and two advocates role play people with normal sight, one whom the blind person knows and one to whom he or she will be introduced. The three, after introductions, should make plans to go to a restaurant together, arranging a date, place, time, and transportation, and asking each other's preferences about type of food and expense (or use any other role play situation that requires the interaction of three people).

After the three role players have completed their arrangements for going out to eat, discuss as a group how and when they used some of the suggestions in the tips. The person who played a blind person can tell how he or she felt at different times during the conversation. For example, when was he or she uncomfortable, which cues from the other speakers helped the most, did they ever overdo the cues and create feelings of ineptness? Group members who observed the role play can contribute their observations also.

Tips on communicating with a physically handicapped person

15 minutes

These tips are harder to demonstrate and illustrate than the tips on other disabilities because it is hard to simulate a motor speech disorder without seeming to ridicule and because the tips suggest appropriate attitudes and responses rather than overt behavior. Therefore, you will probably have to rely primarily on reading over the tips and encouraging questions and discussion.

If you have invited a communication specialist to this training session, he or she may demonstrate at this time some of the nonspeech modes of communication, such as communication boards and machine-generated speech. Or you may do such a demonstration yourself. For example, some people with severe motor speech disorders use the "Speak and Spell' developed by Texas Instruments. The person presses one of the letters on a keyboard and the appropriate letter is vocalized by the machine. The person thereby spells out each word of a sentence. Such a demonstration will (1) show the group how effectively a severely disabled person can overcome a speech disorder, and (2) help the people in the group get used to the idea of nonspeech communication.

"I Learned" Statements

5 minutes

When you have completed the presentation and discussion of tips on communicating with developmentally disabled people, bring the session to a close by asking the group to share "I learned" statements. See "Tips for Trainers" for directions.

Before adjourning, hand out copies of the background materials on effective communication, verbal and nonverbal communication, and listening skills and suggest that group members read this material at home.

Listener Reponses

Passive Listening

1. Nonverbal signals
    a. head nodding
    b. smiling
    c. leaning forward
2. Verbal signals
    a. "I see"
    b. "really"
    c. "yes"
    d. "mm-hmm"

Dialogue Sustaining

Respond with "I'd like to hear more about that" or say "and" or "but" using a questioning inflection to encourage the speaker to continue.

Speaker: I was planning to get a job . . .

Listener: but?

Speaker: But my mother doesn't have time to drive me to work.

Echoing

Restate what the speaker has said using the speaker's own words.

Speaker: I feel scared when I meet new people. Everyone stares at me.

Listener: You feel scared when you meet new people and they stare at you.

Active Listening

Describe the emotion the speaker seems to be experiencing. Lead-in phrases to use are: "You seem to really feel____________." "It sounds as if you feel ________ right now."

Speaker: Everybody tells me what to do. I wish I could do what I want.

Listener: I gather you are pretty irritated right now.

Paraphrasing

Restate what the speaker has said using your own words.

Speaker: No matter what I do my teacher puts me down. I guess I can't do anything right!

Listener: Am I getting this right? You feel that nothing you do pleases your teacher.

APPENDIX B

Information contained in this section further defines "communication competence," details the functions of communication, and provides both a planning matrix for classroom communication activities and several sample exercises for implementing the functions.

- Communication Competencies
- Communication Functions
- Classroom Communication Activity Matrix
- Sample Lessons Using the Functions

COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE

When people work to develop communication competence they are concerned with "putting language to work" for them in the following ways: (1) enlarging their repertoire of communication acts; (2) selecting criteria for making choices from the repertoire; (3) implementing the communication acts chosen; and (4) evaluating the effectiveness of communication employed.

REPERTOIRE OF COMMUNICATION ACTS: To be effective communicators, students must be flexible actors. They must be able to perform a range of communication acts required by the conversation, the people, the setting, and the task-at-hand. Their repertoire should include all five communication functions, i.e., all possible ways to control, feel, inform, imagine and ritualize. Our repertoire goal is to expand the repertoire of communication acts which students can employ in a variety of communication situations.

SELECTION CRITERIA: Communication effectiveness is based on the appropriateness of what people say. The competent communicator carefully weighs the factors of the communication situation: (1) the participants--the people involved in communication; (2) setting--the time and place of the communication event; (3) topic--the subject matter of communication; and (4) task--the goal or purpose of communication. Our selection goal is to provide an opportunity for students to identify and sharpen the criteria they use in choosing communication acts.

IMPLEMENTING CHOICES: Once people have made communication choices for a particular situation, they must possess skills to carry their choices into action. If they have decided that a carefully phrased suggestion, coupled with several justifications, is appropriate for a sister who is in a real jam, they must be prepared to execute that communication plan. Our implementation goal is to offer students a variety of situations helpful in giving them practice in implementing their choice or choices of communication acts in situations.

EVALUATING COMMUNICATION: People must evaluate their communication in terms of its appropriateness to the communication context and its satisfaction to themselves and others (interpersonal effectiveness). These judgments use feedback from others as well as information from personal experiences. By evaluating each encounter in terms of appropriateness and satisfaction, we gain valuable information (criteria) for future conversations with others. The evaluation goal, then, is to provide opportunities for students to sharpen their critical awareness of self and others in moments of communication interaction ("Did my plan work?" "What would probably happen?" "How did the other person probably feel?").

While communication competence has four principal features--repertoire, selection, implementation, and evaluation--this does not mean that it has four steps in an ordered sequence. All aspects of competence are operative in every moment of communication. Rather, each of these four aspects provides a different focus for viewing the development of the student's communicative competence--that is, each focuses attention, pedagogically, on different kinds of instruction intervention.

COMMUNICATION FUNCTIONS

A number of theorists have sorted communication acts into five large families of communication functions which comprise the dominant uses of communication in contemporary life. The term "communication" act or function indicates our concern is with body language and voice, as well as spoken and written words (speech acts).

CONTROLLING	These are communication acts in which the participant's dominant function is to control behavior: for example, commanding, offering, suggesting, permitting, threatening, warning, prohibiting contracting, refusing, bargaining, rejecting, acknowledging, justifying, persuading and arguing.
FEELING	These are communication acts which express and respond to feelings and attitudes such as exclaiming, expressing a state or an attitude, taunting, commiserating, tale-telling, blaming, disagreeing, and rejecting.
INFORMING	These are communication acts in which the participants' function is to offer or seek information: for example, stating information, questioning, answering, justifying, naming, pointing out an object, demonstrating, explaining, and acknowledging.
RITUALIZING	These are communication acts which serve primarily to maintain social relationships and to facilitate social interaction such as greeting, taking leave, participating in verbal games (pat-a-cake) reciting, taking turns in conversation, participating in culturally appropriate speech modes (for example, teasing, shocking, punning, praying, playing the dozens), and demonstrating culturally appropriate amenities.
IMAGINING	These are communication acts which cast the participants in imaginary situations and include creative behaviors such as role playing, fantasizing, speculating, dramatizing, theorizing, and storytelling.

ALL communication functions involve both sending and receiving in conversations--a person both initiates and responds according to basic communication functions.

CLASSROOM COMMUNICATION ACTIVITY MATRIX

FIVE PURPOSES (FUNCTIONS) OF COMMUNICATION*

	Feeling	Controlling	Informing	Imagining	Ritualizing
Intrapersonal	Repertoire: Selection: Implementation: Evaluation:	R: S: I: E:	R: S: I: E:	R: S: I: E:	R: S: I: E:
Dyadic	R: S: I: E.	R: S: I: E:	R: S: I: E:	R: S: I: E:	R: S: I: E:
Small Group	R: S: I: E:	R: S: I: E:	R: S: I: E:	R: S: I: E:	R: S: I: E:
Public	R: S: I: E:	R: S: I: E:	R: S: I: E:	R: S: I: E:	R: S: I: E:
Mediated	R: S: I: E:	R: S: I: E:	R: S: I: E:	R: S: I: E:	R: S: I: E:

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* All communication functions involve both sending and receiving in conversations.

Source: Ruby Taylor
Lafayette High School
Ballwin, Missouri

Primary Function: Informing

Objectives: Giving and following verbal directions

Materials: Two identical sets of various shaped forms. (May be made of wood or paper.)

Procedures: Two students are seated back-to-back and each given a set of various shaped forms or objects. The student follow a sequenced pattern of interaction. Have student A build something using all of the objects, then begin the exercise. First: Student A describes the model to student B, who cannot see what was constructed and must build an identical model following the oral instructions without any verbal response. Second: Continue the exercise while allowing B to ask questions, and A to respond with "yes" or "no" answers only. Third: Continue with unrestricted verbal interaction between A and B. Fourth: Allow B to see A's fully-constructed model and receive help from A.

Place other students where they can watch and discuss the process they are observing.

Questions/Follow-up:

1. What kind of information does B need from A to build the model? (Selection)

2. How did B know which object to place in position? (Implementation)

3. Have you been in similar situations--trying to give instructions (or receive information) without feedback? (Repertoire)

4. How could you improve the situation you are observing? (Evaluation)

5. What are some suggestions which would be helpful to student A or B? (Implementation/Repertoire/Selection)

6. What are the advantages of active involvement in the process of informing? (Evaluation)

7. How could you apply what you have seen to a situation such as directing a new student to a particular classroom in your school? (Repertoire/Implementation/Selection)

Source: Joy McClintock
Seminole High School
Seminole, Florida

HEY, IT'S MY TURN!

Primary Function: Ritualizing

Objectives: Performing and evaluating turn-taking behaviors in conversations and group discussions.

Discussion: Turn-taking is defined as cues, both verbal and nonverbal, that participants use in an interaction for the appropriate sequencing of messages.

The cues are divided into turn-yielding cues, turn-requesting cues, and those kinds of regulating cues given by a listener when he or she agrees or disagrees with the speaker without wanting to take the floor (sometimes called backchanneling).

Example of turn-taking cue: intonation at the end of a sentence indicating the person is finished speaking.

Example of turn-requesting cue: head nods indicating the person wants to talk.

Example of backchanneling cue: a smile which reinforces the speaker and indicates the receiver understands what the speaker is trying to communicate and agrees with what he/she is saying.

Can you give other examples of the kinds of cues that are used to let others know when you wish to have a turn?

1. What do you think?
2. Say that again.
3. Huh?
4. I don't understand.
5. Yes?
6. Go on.
7. I don't agree.
8. No, that's not right!
9. I agree completely!
10. That's exactly right!
11. My point is. . .
12. I'm fed up to here!
13. A clenched fist
14. Slumping in a seat
15. Catching another's eye
16. Signaling with the eyes
17. Cold stares
18. Frowns
19. Knitted brows
20. Pout
21. Puckered mouth
22. Set (tight) lips

Some of the above are examples of verbal and some are nonverbal kinds of cues used to indicate turn-requesting; turn-taking; and backchanneling.

Vocal cues are also very important: the inflection, the rate, the pitch, and the loudness or softness of the voice are also indicators. For example, how does the voice change when a person is asking a challenging question? When the group members begin to reach agreement? When discussing the final solution? When there is a rising argument?

Questions: Can you give an example of how the phrase "What do you know about it? could be said to indicate both sarcasm and friendly acceptance? (R)*

During a conversation between two people, what cues indicate to you when each person wishes a turn at speaking? (R,S)

What cues indicate turn-requesting? (R,S,I)

What kinds of cues do you see when one person is merely supporting the speaker, but does not wish to add any comments of his/her own? (S,I,E)

Which cues did you find effective? Ineffective? (E)

Which cues should not be used in social interaction and which cues are acceptable? (S,E)

Would certain ways of getting the group's attention be inappropriate? (R,S,E)

Have two or more students discuss a topic of current interest. Follow up their conversation with a discussion of their ritualizing behaviors. Discuss some of the various ways the participants used verbal and nonverbal cues to indicate turn-taking, turn-requesting, and backchanneling.

1. What cues did the class observe? (R,S)

2. What cues were the participants aware of? (R,S)

3. How could the participants been more affective? (R,I,E)

Consider the following questions:

1. How would you get attention in a group that refused to let you have a turn? (R,S,I,E)

2. What might you do and how would you show disagreement with another idea in a group discussion? (R,S,I,E)

3. What kinds of cues do you watch for when talking with another person? Facial expressions, head nodding, eye expressions? (S,E)

4. What do you think it means when someone rolls their eyes upwards? (E)

5. How important in backchanneling is a smile, a head agreement, a frown? (E)

Now, how many cues can you recognize as turn-taking? As backchanneling? As turn requesting? (R,S,E)

Again, may I remind you that these cues we have looked at and discussed today are all examples of the communication known as Ritualizing. Can someone give me a definition of ritualizing?

Conclusion: Hopefully, this discussion today of the kinds of cues used by all of us in the act known as ritualizing will help all of us to become better and more experienced communicators and help in determining which cues are acceptable to society, and which are considered inappropriate.

*R refers to questions which help to expand the students' Repertorie; S = Selection Criteria; I = Implementation Strategies; and E = Evaluation.

APPENDIX C

This section contains sample outlines, exercises, and evaluation forms for a variety of communication activities.

- Levels of Empathy: Outline
- Some Common Listening Problems
- Defensive and Supportive Communication Climates
- Listening Exercises
  - The Reflective Response Technique
  - Listening Triads
  - Listening Exercise Questionnaire
- Nonverbal Communication: Axioms and Content Areas
- Interviewing: Definition, Types, and Questions
- The Problem-Solving Process
- Audience Analysis: Factors for Analysis
- Stages of Delivery: Inventory
- Impromptu Speaking: Suggestions for Effectiveness
- Informative Presentations
  - Organizational Patterns
  - Visual Aids: Suggestions for Appropriate Usage
  - Types of Verbal Supporting Material
  - Evaluation Form
- Persuasive Presentations
  - Organizational Patterns
  - Evaluation Questions

LEVELS OF EMPATHY

Level I: Maximum Understanding through Social Sensitivity

- A. Understanding the Speaker's Perceptual World
    1. Attitudes
    2. Values
    3. Beliefs
    4. Knowledge
    5. Culture
    6. Social System
    7. Past Experiences
    8. Future Expectations
- B. Understanding Our Own Perceptual World--Selective Perception
- C. Understanding the Content Communicated--What is Being Said?
- D. Understanding the Feelings Communicated--How is the Message Being Said?

Level II: Confirmation of Understanding through Active Listening

- A. Attention During Communication
    1. Nonverbally (attentive posture, head nods, eye-contact, facial expressions)
    2. Verbally (vocalizations which indicate you're keeping up with the speaker and interested in the information communicated)
- B. Reflection of Maximum Understanding of Other's Ideas
    1. Verbally
    2. Nonverbally
- C. Reflection of Maximum Understanding of Other's Feelings
    1. Verbally
    2. Nonverbally

SOME COMMON LISTENING PROBLEMS*

1. Viewing a Topic as Uninteresting.

2. Criticizing a Speaker's Delivery Instead of His Message.

3. Getting Overstimulated or Emotionally Involved.

4. Listening Only for Facts.

5. Preparing to Answer Questions or Points Before Fully Understanding Them.

6. Wasting the Advantages of Thought Speed Over Speech Speed.

7. Trying to Outline Everything.

8. Tolerating or Failing to Adjust to Distractions.

9. Faking Attention.

10. Listening Only to What is Easy to Understand.

11. Allowing Emotionally Laden Words to Interfere with Listening.

12. Permitting Personal Prejudices or Deep-Seated Convictions to Impair Comprehension and Understanding.

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* from Larry L. Barker, Listening Behavior

DEFENSIVE AND SUPPORTIVE COMMUNICATION CLIMATES

DEFENSIVE BEHAVIOR: behavior which occurs when an individual perceives threat or anticipates threat.

Defensive behavior leads to defensive listening and produces postural, facial, and verbal cues which raise the defense level of the original communicator.

Increases in defensive behavior have been found to correlate positively with losses in efficiency in communication.

DEFENSIVE CLIMATES	SUPPORTIVE CLIMATES
1. Evaluation	1. Description--genuine requests for information.
2. Control	2. Problem-Orientation--collaborate on seeking solution to problem
3. Strategy--hidden motivation	3. Spontaneity--straightforward and honest
4. Neutrality--little warmth or concern for the other person	4. Empathy--respect for worth of the other person
5. Superiority	5. Equality--mutual trust & respect
6. Certainty--dogmatic	6. Provisionalism--willing to experiment and investigate issues

from Jack R. Gibb, "Defensive Communication , Journal of Communication, Volume XI, No. 3 (September, 1961), pp. 141-148.

The Reflective Response Technique

Definition: A response by the listener in which he/she verbalizes back to the speaker the essential ideas and feelings the speaker has expressed. The listener acts as a mirror, reflecting back and supporting the speaker's message.

Objectives:

1. Listen not only for the words of the speaker, but for the feelings behind the words as well.

2. Try to see and understand the world through the speaker's perceptions.

3. Do not evaluate. Suspend your own value judgments, so as to understand the speaker's thoughts and feelings as he/she experiences them.

4. "Check out" your understanding by verbally and nonverbally reflecting back to the speaker the essential ideas and feelings the speaker has expressed.

5. Encourage further verbalization; support the speaker's ideas and feelings by providing additional information which you feel helps clarify the speaker's ideas and feelings.

6. The following phrases may help you get started with the reflective response tecnnique:

   What you seem to be saying is . . .

   I think you're saying . . .

7. When sharing your own personal perceptions, use the "I Rule." Talk in terms of yourself; personalizing your conversation with yourself. The following phrases may help:

   I feel . . .

   It is my opinion . . .

   I believe . . .

   To me it is . . .

   For myself . . .

   I think . . .

Listening Triads

Listening Triads are formed. The participants in each triad label themselves A, B, or C. The facilitator distributes Topics for Discussion (see below). In each group, one person will act as a referee and the other two as participants in a discussion of one of the topics found on the sheet. One will be the speaker and the other the listener. The following instructions are given by the facilitator:

1. The discussion is to be unstructured except that before each participant speaks he must first summarize, in his own words and without notes, what has been said previously.
2. If his summary is thought to be incorrect, the speaker or the referee are free to interrupt and clear up any misunderstandings.
3. Participant A begins as speaker. He selects his topic. Participant B will be the listener, and Participant C will be the referee.
4. Three to seven minutes are allowed for discussion, depending upon available time.
5. The process is repeated for all three members.
6. Class discussion follows. Possible questions might be:
   a. Did you find that you had difficulty in listening to others during the exercise? Why?
   b. Did you find that you had difficulty in formulating your thoughts and listening at the same time?
      (1) Forgetting what you were going to say.
      (2) Not listening to others.
      (3) Rehearsing your response.
   c. When others paraphrased your remarks, did they do it in a shorter, more concise way?
   d. Did you find that you were not getting across what you wanted to say?
   e. Was the manner of presentation by others affecting your listening ability?

Listening Exerise Questionnaire

Following an exercise in which students have had an opportunity to discuss issues, attitudes, and/or feelings regarding a particular topic, the following questions may be used as a stimulus for discussing actual listening behaviors. (Responses can be recorded for each question with added explanations if desired: 5=Always; 4=Almost Always; 3=Sometimes; 2=Rarely; and 1=Not At All.)

A. Your Listening Behavior

1. Did you make an effort to understand your partner's perspective when listening to him/her?
2. Were you interested in what your partner was saying? Did you attempt to empathize with him/her--to see, feel, and hear with your partner?
3. Did you paraphrase your partner's communication with you in the exercise? Effectively?
4. Were you hesitant to disclose your feelings to your partner?
5. What kinds of things could you do to improve your own listening skills?

B. Your Partner's Listening Behavior

1. Did your partner make an effort to understand your perspective when listening to you?
2. Did your partner seem interested in what you were saying? Did he/she attempt to empathize with you--to see, feel, and hear with you?
3. Did your partner paraphrase your communication to him/her in the exercise? Effectively?
4. Did your partner seem hesitant to disclose his/her feelings to you?
5. What suggestions can you give your partner to improve his/her listening skills?

NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION

Three Axioms of Nonverbal Communication:

I. One Cannot Not Communicate

II. Nonverbal Channels are Most Effective in Communicating Feelings, Attitudes, and Relationships

III. Nonverbal Channels Carry High Validity

Nonverbal Communication Areas:

1. Kinesics: Gesture, Posture, Body Movement, Facial Expression
2. Proxemics: Interpersonal Space and Distance; Use of Environmental Space; Seating Arrangements
3. Physical Appearance/Dress
4. Haptics: Touching Behavior
5. Oculesics: Eye Behavior
6. Vocalics: Vocal Behavior; Intonation; Inflection
7. Environmental Factors: Color, Design, Types of Objects; Temperature
8. Chronemics: Use of Time

INTERVIEWING

I. Definition: A form of oral communication involving two parties, at least one of whom has a preconceived and serious purpose, and both of whom speak and listen from time to time.

This definition implies any dyadic interaction may become an interview if one individual has a preconceived and serious purpose for the interaction. One party (usually the Interviewer--R) takes the responsibility for the success of the interaction, while the other party (usually the Interviewee--E) has the power of decision to accept the goal and process of the R. During any interview situation, the roles of the participants may change.

II. Types of Interviews
   A. Information-Giving
   B. Information-Getting
   C. Persuasive
   D. Problem-Solving
   E. Personal Counseling
   F. Reprimand, Correction, Complaint
   G. Appraisal or Evaluation
   H. Stress
   I. Employment

III. Directive/Nondirective Types of Questions - need to be aware of their purpose and effect to be better prepared for interview:

   A. Open-Ended: This is a very broad question allowing the respondent great latitude in reply.

      Ex: What do you think about the computer industry?
      Tell me about the West High-East High game.

   B. Direct: This asks explicitly for a reply on a specified topic. It is more narrow than open-ended.

      Ex: What companies have you interviewed with so far?
      What was the West High School defense like?

   C. Closed: This narrows the response still further.

      Ex: What company did you especially like?
      What scoring play did you like best?

   D. Yes-No Bipolar: This is even more narrow, allowing the respondent no reply except yes, no, or I don't know.

      Ex: Would you be content to work with a company that was not one of your choices?
      Did you see John Ambrose shoot his last two points?

   E. Probe: This is a follow-up to a partial or superficial response, which encourages the respondent to expand on his/her answer.

Ex: I see. Tell me more. Why do you feel the way you do about the company?
Why do you think East High outplayed West High in the first half?

F. Leading: This approach forces the respondent to give a specific kind of answer. Use with caution. It can be tricky to answer as well.

Ex: Almost everyone I have spoken with agrees with your assessment of that company. Why do you think this is?
You thought West High would win, didn't you?

G. Loaded: This type of question has a highly emotional meaning for the respondent and may arouse anger.

Ex: Come on, won't you admit that you are wrong in this assessment?
It's apparent that you said what you did because of the general popularity of our firm.
Are you still betting against West High?

H. Mirror: This question attempts to get the respondent to expand on his/her last response.

Ex: Let me ask the question another way.
You say you think East High outplayed West High in the first half?

I. Hypothetical: This is a way of getting the respondent to expand on his/her ideas and feelings.

Ex: Suppose you could create your own position. What would the job descripition include?
If you were playing in the game, what would you do differently?

PROBLEM-SOLVING PROCESS

Steps in Problem-Solving

1. Awareness of the Problem
   a) Significance & immediancy of the problem
   b) Effect on individual group members
   c) Broader implications for the group
   d) Need for decision or action

2. Definition of the Problem
   a) Problem clearly stated
   b) Definitions of terms
   c) Question designed to require discussion, not debate (i.e., an open-ended question rather than an either-or question which demands discussants to take opposing sides)

3. Exploration of the Problem
   a) Nature and extent of the problem
   b) Causes of the problem
   c) Effects of the problem
   d) Main issues
   e) Possible limitations

4. Criteria for Solution
   a) Criteria proposed and adopted for evaluating possible solutions
   b) Criteria = Limitations which are placed on the solution (e.g., funds, school policy)

5. Suggestions of Possible Solutions
   a) Should reflect thoughtful, realistic, and representative proposals for decision or action
   b) Brainstorming may be used at this stage

6. Exploration of the Possible Solutions
   a) Implications of each possible solution
   b) Best solution meets most of the criteria identified

7. Solution Implementation
   a) How might this solution be put into effect?
   b) To implement solution, repeat the problem-solving process

Attitudes Vital to Problem-Solving:

1. Development and maintenance of a Reflective Approach
   a) Giving equal hearing to all points of view, regardless of prejudices
   b) Remain open-minded
   c) Avoid defensiveness
   d) Ideas should be treated as the property of the group, rather than of the individual who proposed them
   e) Hold decisions until ALL solutions have been explored
   f) Thoroughness, accuracy, considered judgement, lively imagination, sensitivity to feelings of others, and patience should be part of the process

2. Awareness of and Desire to Satisfy the Needs of Other Discussants
    a) Self Respect
    b) Need to Belong
    c) Feeling of Accomplishment

STAGES OF DELIVERY

I. Delivery less effective than in regular conversation. This may seem silly, but many people pick up distracting mannerisms in a public speaking situation that they do not have in everyday speech. If you are at this stage for more than one speech, you should definitely see me for special help.

II. Delivery at least as effective as everyday speech.

III. Significant progress in eliminating your most distracting mannerisms. Freedom from notes. Eye contact through most of the speech. Voice audible at all times. Articulation and phrasing clear enough that no phrases of your speech are lost. Few vocalized pauses. Free from serious grammatical errors.

IV. No really distracting mannerisms left. Vocal inflection and facial expression related to meaning of speech. Natural gestures and movement. More or less constant eye contact with entire audience. A lively sense of communication. You must appear to like your audience, like speaking and be enthusiastic about your subject.

V. Hold attention throughout the speech. Maintain poise before, during and after the speech. Lectern and notes never used as a crutch. Vocal and facial expression used to reinforce the ideas of the speech. Smooth and pleasing movement and gestures. Acceptable diction, pronunciation and word choice. Articulation clear enough that no words are lost. At this stage we should get a definite feeling that your delivery is projecting your personality into the speaking situation and there should be great interaction with the audience in terms of responding to feedback. Total impression of your delivery at this stage is that people listening to you would say "That's a good speaker."

VI. Fluent, virtually no vocalized pauses. A sense of timing, dramatic pauses, movement, etc. used to elicit audience response. Effective use of language, figures of speech, repetition, and variety of sentence structure. Tone, pitch, volume and physical movement are not only consistent with content but varied enough to add a dimension to your speech. At this stage you should be in command of your audience. We should get a definite feeling that you are using voice and physical activity to set a mood and stimulate emotional responses from your audience.

VII. Spellbinding! I find myself having difficulty finding any suggestions for improvement. (I'll find them, but it's hard.)

These are general categories. Obviously each of you will not fit clearly into one of these at each stage. They represent both general descriptions and specific prerequisites. You may have most of the characteristics of a Stage VI speaker but make so many serious grammatical errors that my general reaction is that your overall effectiveness is the same as speakers in Stage III.

SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROMPTU SPEAKING

1. Try to plan the points you will cover. If you have any time at all, use it to organize your thoughts, either mentally or on paper. Don't be overambitious, trying to cover too much ground. Limit yourself to a few main ideas. If you are familiar with outlining procedures, try to visualize a short outline to follow.

2. Start slowly. When you get up to speak, take your time responding to the introduction and addressing your audience. It may put you at ease and help you establish audience contact if you comment on the remarks made by the chairman or acknowledge the presence of persons in the audience. Your greeting, for example, may be phrased as follows: "Mr. President, distinguished visitors, and members of Phi Beta Kappa..."

3. Maintain an air of confidence. Don't be apologetic for your lack of preparation; after all, the circumstances are not of your choosing. Take a positive attitude that you are complimented by being asked to speak and that you will do your best to justify the compliment. Remember to look at your listeners and direct your remarks to them.

4. Stay on course during your talk. After making a few preliminary remarks to gain confidence and poise, focus on your main points, avoiding digression. If you become stalled momehtarily, restate in a slightly different way something you have said before. If you have notes, refer to them casually; or if you could plan your speech only in your mind, go back briefly to your mental outline.

5. Pause occasionally. Rather than stringing your remarks together on a chain of "and-er's", make use of pauses. Short pauses are effective as a means of emphasis and of signaling the conclusion of a thought phrase or sentence; they also give you time to breathe and to consider your next statement.

6. Conclude gracefully. Even if time remains, stop speaking when you have said all you can on a subject. And use a final summary to strengthen your conclusion. Recapitulating your main ideas for the convenience of the audience will help to offset whatever lack of organization your speech possessed; summarizing may, in fact, make your speech seem better organized and more significant than it actually was.

AUDIENCE ANALYSIS

Ask Yourself:
1) What do I know about the group of people who will receive this message?
2) How can I use that knowledge to increase the probability of achieving my goals?

A. SPEAKER IMAGE FACTORS
1. Perceived friendship of speaker
2. Perceived commonground with speaker
3. Perceived authority
4. Perceived trustworthiness
5. Motivational expectancies--what does listener expect?
6. Ability expectancies--skill of speaker
7. Language expectancies
8. Perceived sponsorship of speaker

B. ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS
1. Physical surroundings--decor, color, space, acoustics, music
2. Occasion or social context
3. Listener-Listener Transaction

C. GROUP MEMBERSHIP FACTORS or Demographic Data
1. Age
2. Sex
3. Socio-economic status--occupation, income, education, language
4. Religious affiliations
5. Avocational Interests
6. Political Affiliations
7. Social Organizations
8. Cultural Backgrounds
9. Geographical Backgrounds
10. Information channels

D. LISTENER MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS
1. Motives--primary and secondary
2. Commitment to motives, desires, or values
3. Values
4. Common premise--search for particular common value held by both listener and speaker
5. Personality Factors: cognitive clarity, cognitive style

E. COGNITIVE FACTORS
1. Listeners' experiences
2. Listeners' knowledge
3. Listeners' beliefs
    a. Cognitive Dissonance
    b. Latitudes of Acceptance and Rejection

F. AUDIENCE ATTITUDES
1. Neutral audience
2. Hostile audience
3. Favorable audience

ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERNS FOR INFORMATIVE SPEECHES

Pattern	Definition	Example
Chronological (sequential)	Arrange in consecutive time sequence	The steps in making a quilt.
Spatial (geographical)	Arrange according to relationships among people, places, or objects	Describing the layout of your living room.
Cause-effect	Begin with causes and point out effects	I. Industry's response to economic slowdown results in a need for fewer workers. II. Consequently the unemployment rate increases.
Effect-cause	Begin with conditions (effects) and discuss their causes	I. The unemployment rate is rising. II. The major cause of the rise rate is industry's response to the economic slowdown.
Topical	Arrange topic according to its natural breakdown. Can be from least to most important and vice-versa.	Discussing the levels of government: city, state and federal.

USING VISUAL AIDS

Visual aids may include graphs, charts, photos, posters, slides, models, even you--any material which can be seen. If visual aids are to be effective, however, several guidelines must be followed:

1. The visual aid should be relevant. If it doesn't help your speech fulfill its purpose, don't use it.
2. Be sure your visual aid is large enough for everyone in the audience to see it easily.
3. Don't block your audience's view of your aid. Keep to one side of it.
4. Plan the visual aid carefully. Hastily made visual aids are seldom effective.
5. Practice with the visual aid, so that you will be able to handle it well.
6. Always talk to your audience, not the aid. Contact with your audience is important, even when you are referring to the aid. Keep your conversation flowing as you use the aid.

ORGANIZATIONAL PLAN FOR INFORMATIVE SPEECH

Step		Purposes	Methods of Development
I.	Introduction	A. To Gain Attention To Direct Attention to Subject To Establish Good Will	Reference to Problem Reference to Occasion Personal Greeting Rhetorical Question Startling Statement Quotation Humorous Story Illustration
		B. To Urge a Need for Your Audience to Listen or Know About Your Topic	Explain the Importance of Your Subject to the Audience
		C. Establish Credibility	Review Your Qualifications to Speak on the Subject.
II.	Body	Present Knowledge and Information	A. Initial Summary of Main Points B. Definition of Key Terms (if necessary) C. Detailed Information Organized according to a definite pattern: chronological, spatial, cause-effect, topical.
III.	Conclusion	A. Focus thought on central theme B. Leave audience in proper mood C. Convey a sense of completeness and finality	Summary Personal Intention Quotation Illustration

TYPES OF VERBAL SUPPORTING MATERIAL

Type	Definition	Example	Make Sure That. . .
I. Example	Refers to an event, person, place, or object in narrative form		all examples are relevant, typical, and appropriate to audience and occasion.
A. Illustration	Detailed Example		
1. Hypothetical	Discusses what could happen	"Let us imagine that we lost our jobs. . ."	
2. Factual	Discusses what did happen	"Several days ago, I lost my job. . ."	
B. Instance	Undetailed example, referring to specific cases rather than describing an event in detail. Usually several examples are used	"The pass-fail grading system is effective. Southwest High, Columbus High, and Franklin High all report that their students work just as hard as under the traditional system."	
II. Comparison	Points out similarities of two or more items		the similarities between the objects, persons, or events compared outweigh the differences between them.
A. Figurative	Compares unlike items	"Violence in this country is spreading like a cancerous disease"	
B. Literal	Compares like items	"It has often been said that our society will decay as did the Roman Empire."	
III. Statistics	Uses figures to show the degree to which something exists	"One out of every four American deaths this year will be from cancer."	the statistics are specific relevant, recent, concrete, and clear, and that they aren't overused.
IV. Testimony	Presents another person's view: either a direct quote or a conclusion	"John Galbraith concluded in 1969 that modern colleges could be characterized as places of revolt and restlessness	the testimony is from a qualified source, not quote out of context, relatively short, not changed in any way, and based on first-han knowledge.

INFORMATIVE SPEECH
EVALUATION

Name ______________________________ Date ______________

Topic ____

SUBJECT		COMMENTS
Challenging	1 2 3 4 5	
Limited	1 2 3 4 5	
Adapted to audience interests	1 2 3 4 5	
Adapted to audience knowledge	1 2 3 4 5	
INTRODUCTION		
Attention gained	1 2 3 4 5	
Needed information given	1 2 3 4 5	
Common ground established	1 2 3 4 5	
MAIN POINTS		
Well stated	1 2 3 4 5	
Outstanding	1 2 3 4 5	
Limited	1 2 3 4 5	
SUPPORTING MATERIAL		
Sufficient	1 2 3 4 5	
Adapted to this audience	1 2 3 4 5	
Subordinate to main points	1 2 3 4 5	
ORGANIZATION		
Easily followed	1 2 3 4 5	
Transitions effective	1 2 3 4 5	
Internal summaries	1 2 3 4 5	
CONCLUSION		
Economical	1 2 3 4 5	
Provide a note of finality	1 2 3 4 5	
Give focus to the whole speech	1 2 3 4 5	
VISUAL AIDS		
Appropriate	1 2 3 4 5	
Effective	1 2 3 4 5	
Well made	1 2 3 4 5	
LANGUAGE		
Sound "oral"	1 2 3 4 5	
Rate, volume, pitch	1 2 3 4 5	
Grammar and pronunciation	1 2 3 4 5	
DELIVERY		
Adequate eye contact	1 2 3 4 5	
Movement meaningful	1 2 3 4 5	
Gestures communicative	1 2 3 4 5	
OVERALL EVALUATION		
Employment of feedback	1 2 3 4 5	
Response achieved	1 2 3 4 5	
Attention and interest held	1 2 3 4 5	

For Persuasive Presentations

THE MOTIVATED SEQUENCE

Step	Function or Purpose	Methods of Development
1. Attention	a. Gain initial attention b. Direct attention to subject c. Establish good will d. Establish credibility	a. Reference to problem b. Reference to occasion c. Personal greeting d. Rhetorical question e. Startling Statement f. Quotation g. Humorous anecdote h. Illustration
2. Need	Kinds of need: a. to urge a change in the status quo (persuasive) b. to urge preservation of status quo (persuasive) c. to urge a need to listen or know (informative)	a. Four fold development of need (persuasive) 1. Statement of problem 2. Factual illustration of problem 3. Ramification (further proof) 4. Pointing (how problem affects audience) b. Development of need (informative) 1. Motivate to listen 2. Importance of subject 3. Review your qualifications to speak on given subject
3. Satisfaction	Kinds of satisfaction: a. present solution or plan (persuasive b. present knowledge & information (informative)	a. Development for Persuasive Speeche 1. Statement of solution 2. Explanation of solution 3. Proof of workability 4. Show how plan meets need 5. Overcome any objections b. Development for Informative Speech 1. Initial summary 2. Defintion of key terms 3. Detailed information 4. Final Summary
4. Visualization	Impress audience with merits of solution and project them into future visualizing results of solution	a. Positive method b. Negative method c. Contrast method
5. Action	End of speech: a. Focus thought on central theme of talk b. Leave audience in proper mood c. Convey a sense of completeness and finality d. Ask audience to believe or act in a certain way	a. Challenge or appeal b. Personal Intention c. Inducement d. Quotation e. Illustration f. Summary

Carolyn M. Del Polito, Ph.D.
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CRITIQUING THE PERSUASIVE SPEECH

LOGOS--Logical Evidence: Check Quantity, Quality, and Reasoning

1. Has the speaker used the best evidence?
2. Is there sufficient evidence given?
   - Specific Examples
   - Are sufficient instances known to warrant the conclusion?
   - Are instances fair examples of the whole?
   - Are they true?
   - Are they recent?
   - Are there exceptions?
3. Is the evidence fact or opinion?
4. Are the facts verifiable?
   - Statistics
   - Are sufficient statistics available to warrant the conclusion?
   - Are they typical and representative?
   - Are they recent, true, and properly selected?
   - Are the units properly defined?
   - Has the material been accurately sampled?
5. Where does the evidence come from?
   - Testimony (Authority: Person or Publication)
   - Is the source competent as an observer in the field?
   - Is the witness in a position to observe?
   - Is source prejudiced, honest, and can he/she/it be corroborated with another source?
6. Is the evidence relevant?
   - Analogy (Comparison)
   - Are the subjects or relationships under comparison actually capable of being compared?
   - Are these similarities important?
   - Do important differences exist?
   - Causation (Causal reasoning)
   - Can a causal relation be established?
   - Is the alleged cause adequate to produce the alleged effect?
   - Is the result the product of a sole cause or a plurality of causes?
   - Are other causes operating to prevent the alleged causes from producing the alleged effects?

ETHOS--Ethical Proof

1. Internal Ethos--Is the speaker. . .
   - Credible?
   - Intelligent?
   - Sincere?
   - Sensitive to Listeners?
   - Trustworthy? Honest?
2. External Ethos--Do the following detract from the speaker's ethos?
   - Appearance?
   - Mannerisms?
   - Social Ease?

PATHOS--Emotional Proof

Are the appeals:
- Relevant to this audience?
- Relevant to the speaker's purpose?
- Sufficient in number?
- Used appropriately?
- Attaining speaker's purpose?